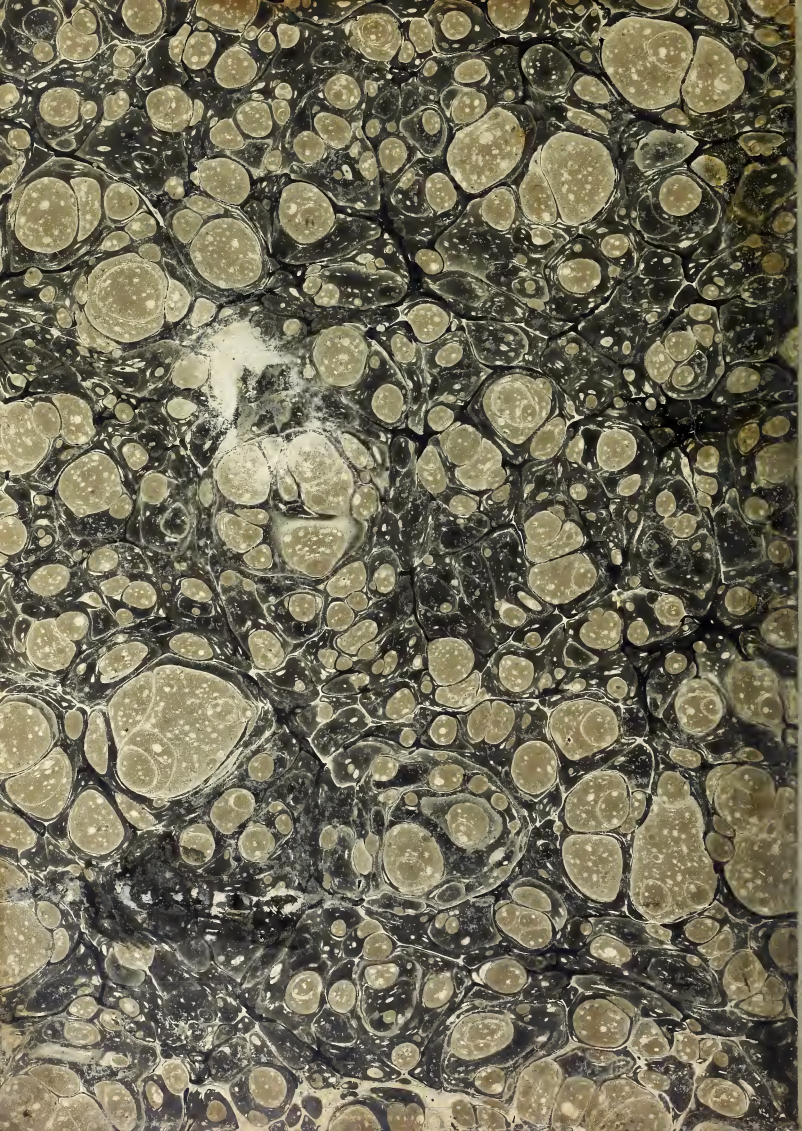

THE MARKET AT BATHA.

(Page 136.)

TRAVELS

FROM

VIENNA

THROUGH

LOWER HUNGARY;

WITH

SOME REMARKS ON THE STATE OF VIENNA
DURING THE CONGRESS,
IN THE YEAR 1814.

BY RICHARD BRIGHT, M. D.

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PREFACE.

It has been the object of the author, in the following work, to lay before his readers the information he has collected respecting the state of a country but little examined by Englishmen, because placed beyond the usual circuit of the traveller's observation. Amongst the labourers who have hitherto gathered in the same field, Townson has, undoubtedly, been the most industrious; and his merits have been acknowledged for a period of twenty years. That Hungary has shared less than most other European states, in the rapid events to which the arms and the ambition of modern times have given rise, is true; she has had her eventful days; she has experienced her

years of splendour, and her centuries of oppression; she has felt the devastations of war, while other countries saw them but afar off; and it has at length been her lot to remain comparatively tranquil, whilst other countries were convulsed. Modern events have, however, wrought changes in her condition, and the patriotism of her nobles is producing an extensive, though gradual, improvement in her internal prosperity. The silent changes of a season of tranquillity, no less than the alterations which rapidly follow each other during periods of public commotion, are objects of research to the Historian and to the Political Economist; and it is the humble duty of the Traveller to collect, under all the varieties of circumstance, such materials as may supply a groundwork for connected history, and for general deduction. Correct observation and faithful statement are the cardinal virtues on which his character must depend; and if in these simple merits the following work should not be found wanting, the object of its author's ambition will be fulfilled.

The reader who seeks for elaborate political disquisition, or the amusement derived from private anecdote, will be disappointed. The work contains little more than the plain statement of the objects which were seen; and where it was thought

necessary to go beyond the sphere of personal observation, German authorities, of established merit, have been relied upon. This is more particularly the case with regard to all statistical accounts, where the assistance of the valuable works of Schwartner and of Bisenger, and of some recent periodical publications, cannot be too fully acknowledged.

It was, at one time, intended to subjoin a sketch of the literature of the country; but, upon this interesting subject, it is not possible to write with a hasty pen; and the materials, which were still but imperfectly collected, had already shewn themselves too extensive to be compressed within the short limits of a chapter. It was not without great reluctance that the author relinquished this object, being sensible that the true spirit and condition of a nation can never be appreciated, without some insight into the progress of its intellectual culture. He trusts, however, that the design which is deferred, will not be forgotten, and anticipates with much pleasure, those hours in which he may pursue his labours upon the subject, with a view of presenting them in a more acceptable form to the public. With this intention firmly on his mind, he has not thought it necessary to suppress the promises, which occur more than once in the

present volume; and, although they no longer refer to pages within its own limits, he ventures to hope that they will be accomplished.

Of the mode in which his performance has been executed, it is not for the author to speak at large; and, whatever anxiety he may experience in submitting himself to the public, he feels, that he approaches them in a form which gives him no right to demand more than justice, or to solicit more than candour. If there be any point which appears to him peculiarly open to criticism, it is the minuteness of detail with which he has sometimes treated matters connected with rural economy. This, however, has been done, with the wish of introducing the reader, as much as possible, to a knowledge of the actual state of a truly agricultural people; and they, to whom the condition of eight million of their fellow-creatures is a matter of any interest, will not shrink from the perusal of a work, because they perceive it to contain a few minute details. The arrangement is subject to those imperfections which generally arise where the form of Journal has been adopted; but an Index is supplied, with the intention of remedying this inconvenience.

The first two chapters cannot be considered as immediately connected with the main subject of

the work ; yet, viewing Vienna as the capital of the great monarchy to which Hungary is closely attached, and remembering the interest of the period which here passes under a hasty review, the propriety of introducing these chapters will not, it is hoped, be disputed.

The Appendix is composed of several independent articles, serving to illustrate various points occurring in the text, and some of them, in conjunction with observations in other parts of the work, will assist in conveying information on the statistics of the whole Austrian empire. To one valuable communication (in the Appendix) the author particularly claims attention. It was written by a friend during a residence in Spain in 1816-17, and although it speaks of a tribe of people inhabiting that peninsula, is strictly connected with the history of a curious part of the Hungarian population ; a tribe which, under the various appellations of Bohemien, Zigeuner, Cygany, Tschingenes, Gitano, or Gypsey, has sprinkled itself over the whole face of Europe. The attention of the author had been formerly called to this subject, by perusing the elaborate dissertation of Grellman, which appeared at Gottingen in the year 1783. When he found himself surrounded by these people in Hungary, he was naturally led

to inquire into their habits and condition. After his return, he was proceeding to investigate their fate in this country, when the appearance of the work of Hoyland, by shewing that the inquiry had already fallen into more efficient hands, put a stop to his pursuits, and, since that time, several periodical publications have furnished more of those scattered notices, from which we may hope, at some time, to collect satisfactorily the history of this extraordinary race. The author, from the observations of his friend in Spain, and from his own observations in Hungary, offers his contribution to the common stock.

With respect to the maps which accompany this volume, it may with confidence be asserted, that they are derived from the most authentic sources; and that, whatever may be the inaccuracies, inseparable from the want of complete and connected trigonometrical surveys, they will be found fully adequate to all the practical purposes, both of the traveller and of the reader. It has been deemed right, in both of these maps, to introduce much more than the country actually visited, because observations are constantly occurring, which embrace not only the whole of Hungary, but of Transylvania, and the military frontier.

To acknowledge the favours which have been

received in the progress of this volume, and during the period to which it refers, would be to comment upon every page, and to relate again the proceedings of each separate day; the author must, therefore, content himself with a general acknowledgment, the sincerity of which they who know him best will best appreciate.

In one instance, which occurs in page 444, the author has detected a fact so imperfectly stated, as to leave an unfavourable impression respecting a body of his own countrymen, for whom he feels a most unfeigned esteem. In that passage, a remark is casually introduced, in reference to the jail of Bristol; and after describing its former condition, he has omitted to add, that the citizens, long sensible of its glaring imperfections, have united their exertions to remove an evil so repugnant to every feeling of humanity; and that considerable progress has been already made in the erection of a spacious jail, for criminals and debtors, on a plan in which perfect security is made consistent with every attention to the health and reformation of the prisoners. Should the good example, now general in this country, be instrumental in leading the great Hungarian proprietors to adopt improvements, suitable to their peculiar situation, England will have fresh reason to rejoice

in its humane endeavours; and the Author of the present volume will feel some satisfaction, if he should have exercised but a remote influence in forwarding this important object.

London, March 1818.

CHRONOLOGICAL LIST

OF THE

SOVEREIGNS OF HUNGARY.

It is judged expedient to insert, in this place, a chronological List of the Potentates who have at different periods swayed the sceptre of Hungary, which may serve as a clue to assist the reader in connecting the scattered historical facts occurring, but scarcely forming an important part in the present volume.

The Dukes of Hungary.

From A. D. 884, Arpad.
889, Arzab.
907, Zoltau.
947, Torus.
972, Geisa.
997, Stephan.

Kings of Hungary.

From A. D. 1000, Stephan I.
1038, Peter I.
1040, Samuel.
1041, Peter II.
1044, Peter III.
1046, Andrew I.
1060, Bela I.
1063, Salomon.
1074, Geisa I.
1077, Ladislas.
1095, Kolomann.
1114, Stephan II.
1131, Bela II.
1141, Geisa II.
1160, Stephan III.
1162, Ladislas II.
1162, Stephan IV.
1162, Stephan V.
1173, Bela III.
1196, Emmerich.

From A. D. 1204, Ladislas III.
1205, Andrew II.
1235, Bela IV.
1270, Stephan VI.
1272, Ladislas IV.
1290, Andrew III.
1301, Wenzel of Bohemia.
1304, Otho of Bavaria.
1307, Charles I. of Naples.
1342, Louis I.
From A. D. 1382, Maria I.
1385, Charles II. of Naples.
1385, Maria II.
1387, Sigismond.
1437, Albert.
1440, Elizabeth.
1442, Wladislaus I.
1444, Ladislas V.
1457, Mathias.
1490, Wladislaus II.
1516, Louis II.
1526, John Zapolga.

Kings of Hungary, of the Austrian Line.

From A. D. 1527, Ferdinand I.
1563, Maximilian.
1576, Rodolph.
1608, Mathias II.
1619, Ferdinand II.
1637, Ferdinand III.
1657, Leopold I.
From A. D. 1705, Joseph I.
1711, Charles II.
1740, Maria Theresia.
1780, Joseph II.
1790, Leopold II.
1792, Francis I.

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TRAVELS

IN

LOWER HUNGARY.

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I had already passed several months in Holland, and different parts of Germany, when the expected dissolution of the congress, which had assembled at Vienna in the autumn of 1814,

induced me to hasten towards that capital; since I was naturally anxious to become a spectator of this most extraordinary assemblage. At Dresden, I was assured that the whole was already brought to a close, and was thus induced to remain quietly for some weeks. When I had advanced as far as Prague, I was hurried on by the report that a few days still remained; during my approach to Vienna, the account changed at every town, and, on entering the capital in the latter end of November, we were told that the congress would certainly continue for weeks, and probably for months; in short, that no one could foresee its termination.

I soon procured a lodging in a busy and dirty inn in the commercial part of the city, which was much frequented by Greeks, Armenians, and Eastern merchants. It was built in the form of a hollow square; the communication between the rooms was by open galleries; and the internal space into which they looked was crowded with tilted waggons, shattered calashes, and other swinging and springless machines, which will not submit themselves to the English nomenclature.

My apartment was large and desolate, without a carpet, but provided with an earthen stove in one corner, and a little wooden bed-stead in another. Such are the miserable accommodations in most of the inns at Vienna. The windows, however, which were double, looked into a busy street, lying in the direct line between the gayer parts of the town, and the great public drive called the Prater, and, as it was at an hour when many carriages were rolling towards that spot, the scene was lively, and put me more in mind of London than any thing I had before seen in Germany. Many of the equipages were handsome, well attended by servants, and kept with care. After some time, I walked into the streets,—a service of danger; for most of them are narrow, and the sides, which are paved with flat square stones for the convenience of

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walking, and are, on that account, greatly praised throughout the whole empire, are so little elevated above the carriage tract, that the foot passenger has no safety but in the judgment of the charioteer, who frequently risks an encounter with your feet, rather than with the wheels of a passing carriage. The coachmen, however, give some warning of their approach, by a species of unintelligible roar, a little in accent like the language in which a Lancashire carter converses with his team; but not less peremptory than the rapid "by your leave" of a Bath chairman. When, by courage or good luck, I could snatch an opportunity to cast a look upwards, I observed that many of the houses were large, and handsomely built, and all of them very high; but, owing to the narrowness of the streets, there is a prevailing gloom, and it is only in a few of the more open parts that the real beauty of the buildings can develope itself. The shops display a considerable variety of goods, though frequently a square glazed case of patterns hanging at the door is the only mark by which the nature of the shopkeeper's dealings is indicated. Besides this, a small board, projecting into the street from above each door, bears some painted sign, as the Golden Fleece, the Sceptre, the Schwartzenburg Head, or the Holy Ghost.

It may not, perhaps, be improper, thus early in my narrative, to introduce a slight description of the general situation and character of this city. Stating, at the same time, a few of the principal events which have had an influence over its external state and appearance, as they have forwarded or retarded its internal prosperity.

The city of Vienna is situated on a plain where the Danube divides itself into several branches, upon the southernmost of which the capital is built. It consists of two parts perfectly distinct. The city, properly so called, is surrounded by walls, bastions, and a dry fosse, forming a complete fortification;

and the suburbs, which are surrounded by a line of circumvallation, with barriers at all the openings, and are separated from the city by the *Glacis*, and an intervening space entirely free from buildings. The circuit of the inner fortification is less than three miles, whilst that of the external *lines* exceeds twelve; including in this the line of the works, which occupies about two-thirds of the whole, and the natural line, formed by the branch of the Danube, which, touching at one part of the walls of the city, may be considered as forming one-third of the surrounding line of defence. A part of the suburbs is cut off by this branch of the river, being situated on the opposite side, and occupying part of a large island, formed by the divided stream. The whole population of this capital amounts to about 270,000, of which 200,000 reside in the extensive suburbs.

The history of this city, situated almost upon the eastern confines of Germany, is crowded with eventful periods. It had been for many years a station of the Roman legions, and had afterwards successively fallen into the hands of the Goths and of the Huns, when Charlemagne in 791 attached it to the empire of the Francs. At this time, however, the walls included but a comparatively small space, and, when the church of St Stephen, which now stands nearly in the centre of the city, was built in 1144, by the margrave Henry II., it was without the walls. Under a succession of margraves and of dukes, the city was gradually improved by public buildings, and institutions; and by fortifications, added or strengthened, according to the urgency of domestic and foreign danger. It was during this period, in the year 1365, that the Duke Rudolph IV. founded the university to which Maria Theresa, four centuries afterwards, gave its present form and importance. In 1484, Vienna sustained with courage, but without success, a siege by the Hungarians, under their king Mathias, who,

from that time, took up his residence in the city. On his death, however, the Emperor Maximilian was received as Archduke, since which Vienna has always been the residence of the Austrian Court. In 1529, the inhabitants, to defend themselves against the Turks; who, taking advantage of the disturbed state of Hungary, had carried their arms into Austria; were compelled to destroy the whole suburbs by fire, and to repair the imperfect fortifications with all possible activity, and by these means were enabled, after suffering a siege of three weeks, to force the enemy to retire. In consequence of the warning which they received from this attack, the city was surrounded by the regular fortifications and walls, which still exist in many parts quite uninjured. In the year 1683, the Turks were again induced by the Hungarians to undertake the siege of Vienna, with a large army under the command of the vizier in person. The commandant of the town a second time destroyed the whole of the suburbs, and for two months maintained the city, when, other forces coming to the assistance of Vienna, the Turks again retired. The fortifications were then repaired, and the suburbs rebuilt; and, in 1704, the lines of circumvallation were formed, to protect them from the incursions of the Hungarians, who were again agitated by revolt. From this time, under the successive reigns of Joseph I., of Charles IV., of Maria Theresa, of Joseph II., and the short reign of Leopold II., the public edifices and institutions of Vienna were greatly improved. In 1792, the present emperor succeeded, amidst the unpropitious omens of the French Revolution. In 1797, Vienna was again threatened with siege by the victorious armies of France returning from Italy,—a danger which was averted by the treaty signed at Leoben. In 1805, however, on the breaking out of a new French war, the enemy was suffered quietly to take possession of Vienna, on the 13th of No-

vember. After remaining in the city for a month, the French troops withdrew, and Napoleon, having returned his thanks to the inhabitants for their loyal attachment to his person, entered the city in triumph. In 1809, war again broke out between Austria and France. After the battles fought from the 18th to the 22d of April, by Napoleon and the Archduke Charles, in the neighbourhood of Ratisbon, the enemy set themselves in march towards Vienna. The town prepared for siege. The French took possession of the suburbs without experiencing any resistance; and the Emperor Napoleon, on the 9th of May, fixed his head-quarters at the palace of Shönbrun. On the 11th, at nine o'clock in the evening, the bombardment of the city commenced furiously in one part, while an attack was at the same time made upon another. Before three in the morning a capitulation was offered, and Marshal Oudinot had taken possession of the town before nine. Subsequently to this, the well-known battles of Wagram and of Asperne took place, and concluded in the armistice of July the 12th, and in the peace signed at Shönbrun on the 14th of October. The French immediately began to destroy the fortifications of Vienna; and, before they left it, had made such extensive breaches, that their repair would require an immense labour and expence. The Austrians have at length perceived the impossibility of defending a town which is commanded by its suburbs, and justly feeling the calamities to which the inhabitants of a fortified place are often exposed, have resolved not to repair the walls, and are now busily employed in pulling down several parts, in order to facilitate the approaches to the town. The events which followed the French campaign of 1809 in such rapid succession, and which finally gave rise to the general congress assembled at Vienna, are too fresh in the memory of every one to require any detail.

On this short sketch of some of the prominent features in the history of Vienna, it is by no means my intention to ingraft a political discussion; it is introduced simply with the view of leading the reader to form correct ideas of the present state of the Austrian capital. He will at once form to himself the picture of antiquated buildings piled up in successive stories, and of streets narrowed to the utmost by the trembling people who sought protection within the walls; and he will anticipate a town irregularly constructed by frequent additions, yet ornamented by many substantial public edifices, arising under the comparatively quiet and peaceful reigns which preceded that of the present monarch. In the suburbs he will look for a more regular and open plan of building,—for houses less elevated,—for gardens and places of recreation,—for the work-yards of artificers,—and the seat of many manufactures; —and all this he will find. In fact, the city of Vienna and its suburbs, as it relates to the elevation of the buildings, approaches somewhat to the figure of a cone, of which the apex is formed by the steeple of St Stephen's church, and the circumference of the basis by the external lines of fortification. The largest, highest, and best houses of the suburbs, are generally built in those parts which face towards the city, where are seen several fine streets, palaces of the nobility, and public institutions. The glacis, and the area which is always preserved free from buildings, is nearly a quarter of a mile in width, and is a most valuable means of securing the health of the inhabitants.

My first walk was short; and at an early hour I retired to the box, for it deserves no better name, which was destined to receive my weary limbs. From this I was roused in the morning by a succession of visitors; one presented himself as a chiropodist, another was a barber; a woman came to supply

me with tooth-brushes and trinkets; a turbaned figure had beautiful amber mouth-pieces for tobacco-pipes; and another excellent meerschaum tobacco-pipe heads. Having dismissed all my company, too little satisfied to induce them to repeat their visits, I had my breakfast, consisting, as is usual in Germany, of a jug of hot scalded milk, and another of coffee.

It was Sunday; the shops were all closed, and, in addition to the mass, which is daily and almost hourly celebrated in all the churches, sermons were preached in the German language. It is a day of more than ordinary festivity amongst all ranks; the theatres are open in the evening; and I was strongly recommended to visit a place of public amusement called the Redoute, where, in all probability, I should see many of the distinguished persons then collected at the Congress.

Not having yet delivered my letters, I accompanied a gentleman of Vienna, with whom I had made an accidental acquaintance. We entered the room about nine o'clock in the evening. It is a magnificent saloon, finely lighted, surrounded by a gallery, and forming a part of the large pile of building called the Bourg or Imperial Palace. Never was an assembly less ceremonious; every one wore his hat; many, till the room became heated, their great-coats; and no one pretended to appear in an evening dress, except a few Englishmen, who, from the habits of our country, and some little vanity, generally attempt to distinguish themselves by an attention to outward appearance. Around the whole circumference of the room were four or five rows of benches, occupied, for the most part, by well-dressed females; while the other parts presented a moving multitude, many of whom were in masks, or in dominos, and were busily engaged in talking and laughing, or dancing to the music of a powerful orchestra. My companion squeezed my arm, as we passed a thin figure with sallow shrunken features,

of mild expression, with a neck, stiff, bending a little forwards, and walking badly. "That is our Emperor." I shook my head and smiled. He was alone, and dressed like the rest. "Pray "allow me to doubt a little till I have some farther proof."— "There, do you see that little man with white hair, a pale face, "and aquiline nose? He was almost pushed down as he passed "the corner;—that is the King of Denmark." Again I shook my head in disbelief. "Here the Emperor of Russia ap- "proaches." I looked up, and found the information true. His fine manly form, his round and smiling countenance, and his neat morning dress, were not to be mistaken; they were the same which, some months before, I had seen enter the church at Harlem, to the thundering peals of the grand organ. I soon recognised the tall form, the solemn and grave features, of the King of Prussia; and afterwards seeing these two in familiar conversation with the two monarchs, whose pretensions I had disputed, was satisfied their claims were just. "That short, "thick, old gentleman, is the Grand Duke of Saxe Weimar. "That young man near him, the Crown Prince of Wirtemberg. "Here, turn your eyes to that seat. The large elderly man, "with a full face,—he looks like an Englishman,—he is the King "of Bavaria."—"*Pardon*," I exclaimed, stepping quickly aside. "That was the Grand Duke of Baaden," said my monitor, "whose toe you trod upon; he was talking to Prince William "of Prussia. Here, fall back a little to let these gentlemen "pass, they seem very anxious to go on. One, two, three, four, "five;—these are all Archdukes of Austria.—There seems a "little press towards that end of the room.—See, three women in "masks have beset the King of Prussia; he seems not a little "puzzled what he shall do with them.—Now a party of waltzers "draws the attention of the crowd, and the King is left to dispose "of his fair assailants as he thinks fit.—Do you see that stout

" tall man, who looks at the dance?—he is the Duke of Saxe " Coburg; and by his side, not so stout as himself, is his brother " the Prince Leopold."—" Who is this young man next to us, " marked with the small-pox, who is speaking broken English?" " It is the Crown Prince of Bavaria; he is said to be very fond " of your nation. And here," giving me another hearty squeeze with his elbow, " is an English milord." He had upon his head a remarkably flat cocked hat,—two ladies in dominos leaned upon his arm. The hat, unique of its kind, rather excited a smile in my companion. After a little more pushing, for the room was now become very full, we encountered a fine dark military looking man, not in uniform of course, but with mustachoes. " This was Beauharnois, viceroy of " Italy." In this way, for two or three hours, did we continue meeting and pushing amongst hundreds of men, each of whom, had he but made his appearance singly at a fashionable rout in London, would have furnished a paragraph to our newspapers, prints to our shops, titles to our bazaars, distinctive appellations to every article of our dress, and themes, if not ideas, to our poets.

As the night advanced, refreshments were provided for those who paid for them, in apartments fitted for the purpose, and several rooms were opened, adjoining to the gallery, where the company might order suppers; and the whole did not break up till a late hour in the morning. Such was my first introduction to some of the members of the Congress.

I succeeded, with some difficulty, in procuring a private lodging, and daily increased my acquaintance with the town and its inhabitants. I was somewhat disappointed in the magnificence which I had anticipated, as attendant upon so important an assemblage from all the powers of Europe. In fact, the splendour was entirely that of the Austrian Court, which

had given to its visitors a most imperial reception. No foreign royal equipages were seen in the streets; but the carriages and servants of the Emperor were perpetually passing. All the imperial and royal guests were lodged in the Bourg. Each sovereign had a complete suite of rooms in the lower part of this extensive building; while their attendants, secretaries, physicians, and other officers, occupied the upper stories of the same edifice. For all these, establishments were regularly provided by the Austrian court. Every royal person had a separate equipage, with six or eight horses, and equerries, and a crowd of servants, as well appointed as those which attended immediately on the person of the Emperor. Neither were the potentates, the Emperor of Russia, and King of Prussia, the King of Bavaria, or the King of Wirtemberg, alone thus provided for, but the Empress of Russia also, the Queens and the Duchess of Oldenburg, were splendidly attended, and even each of their principal officers had a pair or four horses, according to his dignity, constantly at command. I have heard it asserted, that between two and three hundred imperial carriages were in daily use, a very large proportion of which had, of course, been prepared for this occasion. They were all painted green, and adorned with either silver or gold. Many of them approached, though none of them equalled, either in elegance or workmanship, the best English carriages.

In the grand square of the palace, four distinct royal guards were constantly mounted, each consisting of about fifty grenadiers; they were stationed near the apartments of the respective sovereigns, upon whom they attended; and whenever the approach of a monarch or general officer was discovered by the sentinels on duty, the intelligence was passed in a yell more hideous than ever issued from the mouth of a Cherokee Indian.

The drum beat, and the whole stood under arms till the object of their salute had passed the gates of the square.

It was, of course, one great object of the court to provide amusement for the strangers, and to afford the sovereigns as much variety as possible while the negociations were pending.

Amongst the entertainments which were contrived to dissipate the ennui of royalty, nothing of the kind could well surpass the magnificence of a species of tournament, termed a Carrousel, performed by young men of noble birth, which took place in the beginning of December.

The place appointed for this shew was the Imperial Riding-School; a large saloon, surrounded by a narrow gallery about twelve feet from the ground, communicating with the apartments of the palace, and running behind the handsome Corinthian columns which supported a second gallery above. The whole was illuminated by chandeliers to a degree of brilliancy which almost equalled the brightness of day. The accommodations were not calculated for above a thousand spectators, and these consisted of persons who, from their situations and circumstances, had received orders for admission from the court. The seats at one end of the room were set apart for the Monarchs, and at the other for twenty-four ladies, whom we were to consider as the admired objects which would this evening call forth the utmost exertions of skill and prowess in the aspiring knights. At eight o'clock, the heralds sounded their trumpets, announcing the entrance of these fair ladies, who, conducted by the champion knights, took their places of distinction. One would imagine that all the riches of Vienna had been collected to adorn the heads, necks, and persons of these four-and-twenty princesses. Their dresses of velvet and lace were covered with diamonds. They were divided into four companies, distinguished by the colours they wore;—of

one party the velvet was black, of another crimson, the third scarlet, and the fourth blue; and the mantle of each knight corresponded with the dress of his dame. The knights were in Spanish costume, splendidly adorned with gold and silver. When the ladies were seated, and the knights had retired, the trumpets again sounded to declare the arrival of the court. On the entrance of the sovereigns, an universal applause ensued. The two Emperors took their places in the centre at the front, with the Empresses on each side, and then all the other sovereigns, princes, and potentates, in their order of precedency. They were all in their full uniform, with their orders and decorations, and formed the most magnificent assemblage of human beings which Europe could produce. The saloon now resounded with martial airs, and the twenty-four knights entered the arena, mounted on steeds with flowing manes, whose natural colours were scarcely to be traced through their gold embroidery and trappings. The knights, followed by six-and-thirty squires in more simple Spanish dresses, all mounted on jet-black horses, approached the sovereigns in a body, and saluted with their lances. Then, wheeling round with rapidity, they advanced and paid the same mark of respect to their ladies, who, standing up, graciously returned their salutation. The knights then, skilfully manœuvring their well-managed horses, retired from the hall; but four of them quickly returned for the purpose of performing the various feats of skill appointed for the amusement of the day. For this purpose, figures had been placed in the arena, bearing the heads of Turks and Moors. Towards these each knight was to advance, and, passing at full speed, strike off in succession all the heads with his sword,—was then in like manner to raise them from the ground with his weapon, and so in various ways give proof of prowess in the exercises of combat, when neither

blood nor retaliation was expected. In succession all the knights entered in parties of fours, and went through their evolutions with great variety of active exertion, a band of music constantly playing appropriate airs, or martial flourishes.

A considerable time having been occupied by these amusements, the scene again changed, and the whole company of knights and squires appeared together, and performed various elegant and rapid movements, skilfully directing their horses, while at full speed, in all the crossings, turnings, and windings, which give such lively confusion to the order of an English country dance. Other trials of skill succeeded, in which they passed their lances, at full speed, through rings, or disengaged small objects suspended at a height above them. The exercises being ended, the knights again saluted the court, and then their dames, and, encouraged by their smiles and applauses, soon reappeared to lead them in triumph to the ball, prepared in the grand saloon of the Redoute. There the whole company assembled in masks or dominos. The knights and their dames were still the objects of admiration; for the royal personages were generally concealed in simple dominos, and very few of the maskers troubled themselves to maintain their characters with spirit. A magnificent supper was prepared in an adjoining room, of which the dames, who were served by the obsequious hands of their knights, alone partook. The whole amply realized every anticipation of an imperial entertainment. Whatever was august in sovereignty, assisted as spectators of the carrousel; and not a knight entered the lists in whose veins the noblest blood of Europe did not flow. It called to mind the days of ancient chivalry, when these military sports formed so large a part of the amusements of the European courts; and we were probably witnessing these games in the very country which first produced them. Many centuries have now elapsed

since the Germans invented this mode of exercising their prowess on the effigies of their fierce invaders and implacable enemies the Turks; and from them, probably, many of the peculiar insignias and exploits were adopted in the similar exhibitions of other nations.

Grand Court days, such, for instance, as New-year's-day, when every person who has been presented to the Emperor and Empress makes a point of attending, afford, perhaps, even a more splendid exhibition than the entertainment just described. The Court is usually held in the evening, beginning about seven o'clock, and breaking up about ten. On these occasions, a long and handsome suit of apartments is thrown open; the floors of which are not concealed by carpets, but are richly inlaid with various devices. Several of them, occupied as antichambers, and lined with guards and pages, lead to the hall, out of which lofty folding doors open into the principal saloon. There the Hungarian Guards, in their richest uniforms, are stationed. On entering the saloon, a much more dazzling scene of magnificence displays itself. The room is large, but its extent is somewhat lost in consequence of its great height. The roof is supported by pillars in imitation of finely polished marble, which reflect the lustres by which it is lighted. It is beyond my powers to describe the gay and splendid variety of dresses which were here displayed. A large proportion of the men wore military uniforms, but such uniforms as even a Russian would fear to wear in the field by the side of a friendly Cossack. So interwoven with gold—so clasped with jewels—such diamond plumes—and such embroidered stars and orders,—that they bore the appearance of being the substantial fruits rather than the honourable testimonials of victorious arms. The few who were not in uniform, were little inferior in the richness of their embroidered

suits, and added much to the variety of the scene. The ladies were generally in white, with gold and silver points and spangles; their heads dressed with much simplicity, but richly adorned with diamonds. The Empress and the ladies were seated; the men conversed, standing together in the middle of the room, while a large party of dancers marched round and round, to the sound of music, in a quiet, graceful polonoise. And here an observer might read in the countenances of emperors and of kings, the same difficulties of conversation, the same free or embarrassed address, which are occasionally met with in the intercourse of ordinary society. After pursuing their varied windings for a time, as if discontented with the narrow limits of their sphere, the dancers would venture, under the conduct of their gallant general, Prince Schwartzenburg, to explore the endless suit of apartments, 'till the music, almost dying on the ear, warned them to return. The thoughtful card-players let fall their cards, and even Prince Talleyrand raised his mouth, for a moment, above his handkerchief, to see the gay troops of royalty pass on.

In the early part of their visit, the monarchs were twice entertained by a species of royal hunt; deprived of the noblest features of this manly amusement, and degenerated into a cruel display of skill in a very ordinary art. The monarchs and royal personages, who were to be the chief actors in this tragedy, provided with fowling-pieces, placed themselves in certain stations within a large arena, which had been prepared for the purpose, several miles from the city, and was surrounded by accommodations for a large assemblage of nobility. Each of the sportsmen was attended by four pages, to assist in reloading, while yeomen armed with spears stood behind, to protect them from any danger which might threat-

en. All being thus artfully arranged, a number of wild boars, deer, hares, and other animals of chace, which had been before provided, were let loose in succession; and the privileged sportsmen continued to fire till the whole were destroyed, or the destroyers were weary of their labour. It may excite some surprise; but I was assured by one of the spectators, that, though all the monarchs were tolerable marksmen, none shot so well as the Empress of Austria, who always selected the hares, as the smallest objects, and never failed to kill with a single ball. The ladies, it was said, entered with spirit into this amusement, and seemed delighted at the sufferings of a poor fox, which, after being fired at till all his legs were broken, still gasped for breath.

The sanction of a court has great influence, at least on the freedom with which such feelings are expressed. Our English females have as yet only learnt to admire the vigorous activity of a horse-race, which, figured in its least alluring colours, does not assimilate to the barbarity of a bull-fight, the delight of every Spanish lady; or the carnage of an Austrian hunt.

The Emperor, in providing a reception for his visitors, had not calculated on a protracted stay of so many months, and began to find some difficulty in varying their evening amusements. Courts were held; concerts were given; the best boxes in all the theatres were furnished with convenience and splendour; on the one side for the potentates, on the other for the ministers.

Still, however, there was something flagging and heavy; it was impossible to support the spirit of such entertainments week after week; and the court was left very much to its own exertions, for the greater part of the high nobility, impoverished by the war, and despairing of giving any private en-

tertainments which would not be totally eclipsed in splendour by the imperial pageantry, of which they fomed a part, retired from the competition, and were not sorry to avail themselves of the excuse, that their necessary attendance on the court prevented them from their usual exercise of hospitality. Hence the society of Vienna, of which much has been said, suffered materially during the Congress, and comparatively few houses were open for the reception of strangers.

Some entertainments given by individuals were, however, most splendid. These consisted very much of great diplomatic dinners, at which every one was expected to appear in full uniform or court dress, the whole repast being conducted with a magnificence scarcely to be surpassed. On other occasions, the different ambassadors and ministers gave superb dress balls, at which all the monarchs were present;—where they danced freely, supped cheerfully, and parted late.

One of the parties given by Prince Metternich, at his house in the neighbourhood of Vienna, was particularly interesting. It had been signified by the emperor, that his nobles would gratify him by appearing in the costumes of their respective peasants. With this wish they, of course, complied; and the picturesque dresses and magnificent jewels formed a scene in which magic beauty, and princely wealth, were displayed in the most various and interesting combinations.

On another occasion, Prince Razumowsky, the Russian ambassador, gave an entertainment in his palace in the suburbs, at which, after a ball, a magnificent banquet was provided for no less than eight hundred guests, who were all conveniently seated at the tables, which were arranged through a grand suit of apartments.

In the latter part of December, an assembly was proposed by Sir Sidney Smith, which, from its object, may likewise be

considered interesting. It was a sort of Pic-nic,—a dinner and ball. Every ticket of admission was signed by a knight, and knights of every order in Christendom had that privilege. It was the purpose of our distinguished countryman to place the situation of the Christian slaves in the hands of the Barbary powers before the view of the assembled potentates, and to obtain for them at least some temporary relief. The Emperor of Russia, the King of Prussia, the King of Denmark, the Austrian archdukes, and many others, were present. This entertainment was given at a place of public amusement called the Augarten; and the ball, which followed, was a most splendid, though not very numerous, assemblage.

Pic-nic balls were by no means uncommon amusements, the distribution of the tickets being in the hands of those with whom they originated. Here the society was very select; and, as the trappings and restraints of court were put away, they were very pleasant. They were often held in the small room of the Redoute; and, as the monarchs universally joined in the dance, it was commonly restricted to the polonoise: for the rapid revolutions of the waltz were not deemed quite suitable to the dignity of these great personages. Upon the whole, however, this cheerful exercise was a great favourite with the imperial and royal visitors; and, after having left them dancing at three in the morning, I have discovered them at the same employment before nine o'clock on the succeeding evening. Such were the amusements which gave rise to a remark from one who is well known to have said many things more strikingly witty, but few, perhaps, more true,—"Le Congrès," said he, "danse, mais il n'avance pas." A celebrated minister, however, varied the mode of applying the metaphor; for, being one day asked how the Congress

went on, he answered nothing, but began significantly to rub his lame leg.

Morning calls, those senseless caricatures of society, are not considered of the same importance in Vienna as in London. Usually when a stranger has been properly introduced to a family, he receives a general invitation, of which he is expected to avail himself. Accordingly, he calls in the evening, or previously sends his servant; and, if the lady of the house or any of the family are at home, he is admitted, and then, as it happens, meets others, or is perhaps the only visitor. Easy conversation or cards, music and tea, chess or enigmas, fill up the evening; or, if the party be numerous, dances and refreshments, the rehearsal of poetry, or other exercises of mind or body, enliven the visit, and dispel the unpleasant restraints of society.

The evening amusements in Germany are very various, and will sometimes almost fall under the dreaded denomination of puerile. Not content with requesting young ladies to recite verses, they will sometimes invert the natural order of things, and compel children to act plays, while grown people will play cross questions and crooked answers, or standing in a circle, and holding a cord in their hands, pass a ring from one to the other, imposing it upon some one of the party, to discover in whose possession it is to be found. Acting riddles is a favourite game, and one which is well calculated to amuse those, who wisely resolve to be amused when they can. A certain portion of the company retire into an adjoining room, where they concert together how best to represent by action the different syllables which compose a word, and then the meaning of the whole word. They presently return, and, carrying on their preconcerted action, require the company to resolve their riddle. Thus, for instance, on one occasion the

word which was determined upon was *Jumeaux*. Some of the actors coming from their retirement, began to squeeze a lemon into a glass, calling the attention of the company very particularly to it by their action, thus representing *Ju*. Others came forwards imitating the various maladies and misfortunes of life, thus acting the syllable *meaux*. Then, finally, tottered into the circle an Italian duke and a Prussian general, neither less than six feet in height, dressed in sheets and leading strings;—a fine bouncing emblem of *Jumeaux*.

Dinner parties, though not the regular every day amusement of life in Vienna, are not uncommon; and at this period, besides those given by the inhabitants, the numerous strangers, some of whom had sufficiently large establishments, contributed to the number. There is much similarity in the style of dinners throughout Germany, and it has some points of peculiar excellence. The table is generally round or oval, so that each guest has means of intercourse with the whole party, even when it is large. It is covered, for the greater part, with a tasteful display of sweets or fruits; two places only being left, near the middle, for the more substantial dishes. Each person is provided with a black bottle of light wine, and every cover (even at a *table d'hote*) is furnished with a napkin and silver forks. The first dishes which occupy the vacant spaces are always soups; they are quickly removed to the side tables, and distributed by the servants. In the meantime, the next dish is placed upon the table, taken off, carved, and carried round to the guests in precisely the same manner; and so on, till every thing has been served. The plates are carefully changed, but the knives and forks very generally remain through the greater part of the dinner, or, at best, are only wiped and returned. The dishes are so numerous, and the variety so great, that, as every body eats a little of every thing, they seldom take twice

of the same. The succession of luxuries is not exactly the same as with us. An Englishman is somewhat surprised to see a joint of meat followed by a fish, or a savoury dish usurp the place of one that was sweet. To conclude the ceremony, each servant takes one of the sweetmeat ornaments of the table, and carries it, as he has done with the other dishes, to all the guests. During the whole of this time, the conversation has been general and lively, and, beyond a doubt, much more interesting than that which is heard on similar occasions and in similar society in England, where its current is perpetually interrupted by the attention, which every one is bound to pay to the wants and wishes of persons at the most distant parts of the table. While the sweetmeats are served, a few glasses of some superior kinds of wine, which have likewise been distributed at intervals during the dinner, are carried round; and then the company, both ladies and gentlemen, rise at the same time by a kind of mutual consent, which, as the rooms are seldom covered with a carpet, occasions no inconsiderable noise. To this succeeds a general bowing and compliment from every one to each of the company individually, each "hoping that the other has eaten a good dinner." This peculiar phrase is precisely the counterpart of another always employed on the parting of friends about mid-day, expressing "a sincere hope that the other will eat a hearty dinner," and is the form of civility most usual in Vienna. The party now adjourns into another apartment, where coffee is served, and where it is frequently joined by other visitors, chiefly men who come without particular invitation, to pay their respects, or converse on business, in the manner of a morning call, and prolong their visits as the movements of the first party indicate: for an invitation to dinner by no means necessarily implies that you are to spend your evening, or any part of it, at

the house, or that the family has no other engagement as soon as dinner is concluded, and the guests have taken their coffee and liquors. As the dinner is early, being always between twelve and five, the remainder of the evening is employed in various pursuits. A drive in the Prater, or to some place of public resort, a visit to the theatre, or a succession of the calls I have just described, employ the evening; or, if the dinner has been very early, the party resume the occupations and business of the day.

A very large proportion of the strangers who had come to Vienna upon business or pleasure were single men, or such as had left their families at home, without any idea of quitting them for so long a period; and having no establishments, they generally resorted to the different *traiteurs* to dine, where it will easily be imagined that a singular variety of national character and language was to be found. Germans from all parts, Italians, French, Danes, English, Greeks, Armenians, Spanish, and Portuguese, all in promiscuous parties. The Poles and Russians have the greatest facility of conversation; they acquire languages almost without trouble; they begin in their earliest infancy, and readily address every one in his native tongue. On the contrary, the English and French are the most deficient; and frequently brought to my recollection the words of Bacon, who, in giving his instructions to the young traveller, says, "He that travelleth into a country, before he hath some entrance into the language, goeth to *school*, and not to *travel*." Indeed, obvious as this remark appears, it cannot be fully appreciated by one who has not experienced its truth. Let a man's mind be of the highest character, and cultivated with the greatest care, if he be unable to conceive readily the force of other men's arguments, or to express his own opinions with promptitude and correctness, he must be content to rank

beneath those to whom he is in truth greatly superior. A correct knowledge of French, however, was all which was actually necessary in Vienna; for, besides that it is generally spoken by the court, and well understood by all persons of moderate education, there were few strangers to whom it was not familiar. The German language is spoken in less purity at Vienna than in any other part of Germany. This circumstance has, no doubt, facilitated the introduction of French; but its universal prevalence is perhaps best accounted for from the absolute necessity of finding some one language, in which all the various nations composing the Austrian empire might be able to communicate. Italian has, in this view, been much spoken at the court, and is still frequently introduced; but French generally prevails amidst this confusion of tongues.

Independently, however, of the difficulty which Englishmen often experience from their ignorance of the modern languages, another still more serious obstacle arises from a punctilious disinclination to converse, without proper and regular introduction. An Englishman, if thrown by chance at the same table with strangers, will often eat his dinner in silence and gloom, and leave the party without condescending to make a bow of parting salutation. I have heard such an one complain, with a mixture of contempt and anger, of the forward freeness of these "foreigners." "That impudent fellow began talking to me—I don't know who he is." Yet, in all probability, this despised companion bore the rank of a count, at least; for Vienna was at that time so full of noblesse, that I remember as I was one day going to dine at a traiteur with a friend, the only five persons we accosted were princes, and all of different nations; indeed, a person without some title was scarcely to be found.

In the evening, the theatre is the usual resource for the many

who have no other more active engagement. The time and duration of the performances are very convenient. They begin about six, and conclude a little after nine. The play in Vienna is a recreation,—in London a fatigue. At Vienna you see the best national productions, and enjoy three comfortable hours; whilst in London, it is necessary to derange the whole occupations of the day, and at last to undergo many hours of fatigue and discomfort. The theatres at Vienna were all occupied by German companies; the Italian opera having been lately discontinued. There are five of them, one which communicates with the palace, and is called the Palace Theatre; and another called the Coertner-thor Theatre from its situation; is likewise within the boundary of the city. The other three are in the suburbs. In the two former, as well as in the chief theatre of the suburbs, the representations are highly respectable, and the language spoken is pure. In the two smaller theatres, the pieces are generally of an inferior character; and the German, even where it is not intended to imitate the low and vulgar dialect, is often extremely bad. The prices are all moderate, and the houses were generally well filled. The parterres; which correspond to the English pit, but where places may be previously taken; were full of strangers, the great majority men; officers and diplomatists negligently dressed, though generally bearing some star or cross in token of their rank or services. The greatest decorum prevails in the house during the representation; and England might, in this respect, again take a lesson, though the means employed detract much from the praises due to the result; for the police military; that is, police officers dressed in a particular livery, and wearing swords; are placed in all the avenues. I never saw them usurp any unpleasant authority; and the result certainly is, that a person who goes with a wish to hear the play, is not disappointed by the bursting out of

those noisy quarrels, which scarcely fail to interrupt the performance in an English theatre. Nor is there any part of the house to which a party of the most delicate females might not resort with the greatest propriety. The performances are continued throughout the whole year, with the exception of the days prohibited by the Catholic kalendar, on many of which, however, concerts, public rehearsals, and a species of exhibition called a Tableau, are permitted. I shall say a few words of this latter amusement, as it is scarcely known in England, though often introduced in many parts of the continent; and was, during the assembly of the Congress, more than once made the subject of court entertainments, in which some of the highest nobility performed.

The nature of these exhibitions is, to represent by groups of living figures, the compositions of celebrated sculptors or painters. With this view, the part of the apartment or theatre, beyond which the tableau is to be placed, is darkened, and on raising a curtain, the figures are discovered dressed in the costume which the painter has given them, and firmly fixed in the attitude which his pencil had prescribed. The light is skilfully introduced, and other objects arranged, so as to give as nearly as possible the effect of the original painting. After some minutes the curtain drops to give the performers time to rest, and relieve themselves from the painful attitudes which they are often obliged to maintain, and the curtain again drawn up, discovers them still in their characteristic postures. When the spectators are supposed to be satisfied with one picture, another is introduced, and thus several are exhibited in succession. This generally forms only a part of the evening's amusement, and is either accompanied by a theatrical performance, or, if in private, by dancing or music. I once witnessed a striking variety of this entertainment. At a certain

hour in the evening, in the midst of a splendid assembly, the folding doors of another room were suddenly thrown open, and what appeared to be a beautiful collection of wax figures, was displayed to our delighted eyes. They were placed on pedestals, in recesses, or in groups, around the room. They represented heathen deities, or the gnomes and fairies with which the poets have peopled the regions of imagination,—with all their emblematical accompaniments and their dresses, which were selected with the greatest taste. These figures were represented by persons whom nature had favoured in a distinguished manner; they preserved an unmoved firmness of attitude, and nothing interrupted the illusion they intended to create, but the animation of their eyes, and the smile which sometimes dimpled the cheek even of the rooted Daphne. To assert that this exhibition was beautiful, were to degrade its charms; it seemed to throw a magic spell over the spectators, and the great difficulty was to induce them to retire, when it was actually necessary to relieve the figures from the painful position in which they stood.

The Prater has already been mentioned as a place to which the people resort for amusement. It is situated on a large island formed by the Danube, and is a very magnificent ornament to the city, and a delightful place of recreation for its inhabitants.

The principal drive is between double rows of horse-chesnut trees, and is above two miles long in a straight line. Many other drives and walks intersect the woods, but all the intervening space of turf and grove, with the exception of some preserves for game, is open to the pedestrian. The grand avenue terminates at one end, in extensive public walks, called the Augarten, where a large building is constructed with rooms for entertainments, and saloons for public balls and concerts;

while the garden, which affords a variety of arbours and recesses for tables in the open air, is laid out in avenues formed by cut hedges and magnificent trees, and occupies a space equal to half the city of Vienna.

Near to the grand drive of the Prater are several houses for refreshments, and some buildings for public amusement;—a circus for exhibitions of horsemanship,—a panorama,—several houses for what are called in Germany Carrousels, from their resemblance to horsemen in a tournament; or, as we should term them, merry-go-rounds,—and a very high and extensive scaffolding for the display of fire-works, near to which is erected a kind of open theatre for the spectators. The whole island is adorned with elms of large and beautiful growth; but, as it is flat and low, there are, near the banks of the river, many alders and willows, the latter of which have attained a most unusual size. To this delightful place the people flock in crowds, even during the winter, if a bright day invite them; but, as the spring advances, and the trees begin to cover themselves with leaves, and the days to lengthen, these visits are more general, and the hour of retiring becomes later. At this season it is not unusual to see a double unbroken row of carriages extending for at least a mile, each preserving the exact line, to which it is strictly kept both by custom, and by the interference of men in the livery of the police, who are stationed at regular distances.

The assemblage of carriages in this procession is singularly varied. As the Emperor of Austria passes in one direction, driving the Empress in a phaeton with a pair of quiet horses, and a single servant standing behind, the Count Trautmannsdorf, the master of the horse, is passing in the contrary direction, with a curricle or barouche and six. Immediately before the Emperor the carriage which impedes

his progress is a fiacre, hired by a little shopkeeper to take his wife and child an airing in the Prater. Behind him, scarcely restrained by his orderly example, are the impatient wheels of a tilbury, guided by a young English lord; next follows a sort of truncated chariot, with a notch cut in the front to receive a coachman, folded in an old cloak, with ornaments of coarse fur, a large misshapen cocked hat, edged with tarnished lace, and a short crooked pipe stuck in the corner of his mouth.—This carriage was hired by a young Polish count at the rate of twelve shillings per day, to be constantly in waiting for him.—The next carriage is an open landau, with four horses, very plain, nay, scarcely respectable; it contains the King of Prussia and three of his diplomatic corps. Then the carriage of a wealthy banker; next a green *brischca*, in which two young men are lounging at their ease;—the cockade is Sardinian. The next is a chariot and four, with two postillions in blue, with cocked hats; the livery is that of the Prince Liechtenstein. Then follows an open carriage, with two very pretty women, well dressed, but rather gaily for the place;—no one knows who they are. This curricle and pair, fitted out exactly in the English style, and followed by two out-riders, is the Prince N. Liechtenstein; and this handsome English carriage, driven four-in-hand, which breaks a little from the line, is the English ambassador's. On the turf gallops the Emperor of Russia upon a large grey horse, and with him Prince Eugene Beauharnois, subduing a fiery black. The Emperor is dressed in a blue coat and buckskins, and is followed by a single groom. Those who now spur their horses into a gallop,—follow a hare, —or, leap the rails!—who does not know the country to which they belong? Now a carriage draws up to the side near the houses of refreshment, and the Pasha of Widdin alights with his companion, and followed by a servant carrying his hookah, all

are dressed in full Eastern costume, and the Pascha is going to enjoy his pipe over a cup of coffee. In short, the carriages and costumes of the whole of Europe, both civilized and uncivilized, were at this moment to be seen in the drive at Vienna. The numerous tables which stand beneath the groves of trees are filled with mixed parties; they generally look like families; some of the females have brought their work. A few officers out of uniform sit in groups, and, as they smoke, quietly enjoy the passing scene. Advancing into the wood, and leaving the grand drive, numbers of the common people are seen sitting at the tables smoking and drinking beer, or thronging about the buildings of the carrousels, to which a trumpeter from time to time calls their attention; while, in an adjoining room, music invites the soldier and his sweetheart to mingle in the rapid waltz. If you have wandered in another direction, you have perhaps heard the report of fowling-pieces in such rapid succession, that you expected to meet a large party of sportsmen, but, to your surprise, have learned that a single individual is waging war upon the young rooks. He is an Austrian nobleman, accompanied by four men in green jackets, each with a loaded fowling-piece ready to put into his master's hands the moment he has discharged his own; and thus the poor rooks would be subjected to a most continued galling fire of their enemy, were he but a more skilful marksman.

The inhabitants of Vienna are not only much in the habit of frequenting the Prater, and there, in the enjoyment of little societies under the green shade, dining or chatting over their coffee; but frequently extend their excursions to those more distant spots, where some sweet retirement conceals from them the noise and bustle of the capital, and the uninteresting flatness of the country in which it is placed. At one time they will visit the delightfully wooded and varied

parks of Dombach, at another, they climb the towers on the summit of the rocky Griffinstein, where they will point out to the Englishman who accompanies them, the den of solid timber in which his monarch Richard is said, though perhaps not quite correctly, to have passed the period of his imprisonment. At another time they will visit the heights of the Johansberg, and, tracing the divided bed of the Danube, will mark, with regret, the whirlwinds of dust that float over to the city, to which the descending sun bids them again return; or they will roam the day in the delicious mountain bosom of the Brül, look from the surrounding heights on the rough and alpine features of Carinthia, or read the monumental lines engraven on the temple raised by the gratitude of Prince Liechtenstein to the memory of the four soldiers who fell in rescuing him from the enemy of their country.

RUHET SANFT AUF DIESEN HOHEN
EDLE GEBEINE TAPFERER ŒSTERREICHS KRIEGER
RUHM BEDECKT BEY ASPERN UND WAGRAM GEFALLEN
VERMAG EUER FREUND NICHT DIE ENTSEELTEN
LEICHNAME ZU BELEBEN,—SIE STETS ZU EHREN, IST SEINE PFLICHT.

REST SOFTLY ON THESE HEIGHTS,
YE RELICS OF BRAVE AUSTRIAN WARRIORS,
WHO, BEDECKED WITH GLORY, FELL AT ASPERN AND WAGRAM.—
THOUGH IT BE DENIED YOUR FRIEND TO REANIMATE,
IT IS HIS DUTY TO RENDER YOU UNCEASING HONOUR.

The climate of Vienna, during the winter of 1814-15, was nearly as changeable as that of London: from the middle of December, however, till the middle of February, there was sufficient frost to keep the ground almost continually covered with snow. The thermometer was often at 25° of Fahrenheit, during the day, and at midnight seldom below 20°. At this period the streets of Vienna were crowded with sledges, the greater part

of the wheeled carriages having disappeared; even the hackney coaches had been taken from their wheels to be hung upon sledges. The horses' heads were adorned with plumes, and, as they passed over the hardened snow without occasioning any sound, it became necessary to provide them with bells, which gave warning of their approach. From 50 or 100, arranged in order, upon a piece of leather or velvet, placed upon the horses' shoulders, produced a lively and agreeable jingling sound on every motion of the animal. The scene afforded by these sledges is much more gay than that produced by an equal number of wheeled carriages; there is always some emulation in adorning them with plumes or coloured cloths; and amongst the nobility, the vanity of possessing rich and beautiful sledges was once carried to such excess, and produced such large expences, that it was discouraged by the court. On the present occasion, however, the Emperor invited his nobility to assist in forming a magnificent procession of these vehicles for the amusement of his guests.

The day appointed for this parade was Sunday, and the streets were, during the whole day, crowded with an expecting multitude. The greatest good order prevailed: arising in part from the accustomed subjection of an Austrian mob, and in part from the sedate and orderly feeling communicated by a Sunday dress. At two o'clock the procession began to move through the streets. It was indeed singularly beautiful. There were nearly forty sledges prepared for the purpose, fitted up and adorned in the most splendid manner. They all varied in colour; green, blue, red of every shade, covered with ornamental work of gold and silver, and lined within with velvet and rich fur. They were generally built like light cars, for two persons, a gentleman driving, and a lady sitting by his side; the former dressed in full uniform, the latter with high

plumes of feathers, rich dresses, and a notable quantity of rouge. The greater part of this assembly were royal persons; two Emperors, three Kings, two or three hereditary princes, several archdukes; amongst the ladies were two Empresses, two queens, archduchesses and princesses; and with them were observed two of our own nobility. Each sledge was drawn by a single pair of horses, covered with richly embroidered cloths of gold, with plumes upon their heads and necks, and a great mass of silver or gilded bells hanging in the usual manner across their shoulders. A servant in a rich fur cloak stood behind each sledge, and between each, three or four equerries attended, in the uniforms and liveries of the Emperor, or of their respective masters. A band of military music preceded on a large sledge constructed for the purpose, and a similar band followed. A body of horse soldiers went before the whole, and another closed the procession. This brilliant pomp passed and repassed through all the principal streets of Vienna; then, leaving the town, proceeded to a palace of the Emperor at some distance, where a magnificent dinner and a theatrical exhibition had been prepared; and, at ten o'clock, the procession returned by the light of torches. As it approached over the glacis, and open space between the walls of the city and its suburbs, the effect was very striking. The ground was covered with deep snow, and the winding course of the procession was marked like a river of fire, by the flames of the moving torches. When they entered the streets, the effect was, in a great degree, lost; and, after a short circuit, the ladies were conducted to their respective habitations. After seeing this exhibition, I went to a little card party, and afterwards to one of the masked balls at the Redoute, where I laughed with great princes, and flirted with masked

ladies, till a late hour, and thus concluded a Sabbath in the capital and court of this most Christian and Catholic country.

I have already mentioned, that the festivities of Vienna are suspended or modified according to the instructions of the Catholic kalendar. I shall now venture to describe a few of the religious ceremonials which occurred during my residence in that city, and produced some changes and interruptions in the usual course of amusement. The first of these took place about a month before Christmas. During the whole of Advent, public balls were prohibited; and, in the two days previous to Christmas day, the theatres were closed, although a great concert was, on the 23d, given by the court. The bad weather prevented any public processions on Christmas day. It was, however, fully occupied in prayers and mass through all the churches, which were attended by great multitudes of people. I observed some of them most actively employed, at the same moment, upon their different religious duties. During the time they stood around the pulpit, as if listening to the sermon, their lips were in rapid motion repeating their prayers, their hands busily counted their beads, and their eyes were wandering from one object to the other, fixed for a moment, upon an altar, for a moment, upon an ornamented image, and then, for a moment, upon the sacred relics of a mouldering saint. After the sermon, a procession of priests and attendants passed through the assembled crowd, sprinkled the people with holy water, and invoked upon them the blessings of Heaven. These and similar ceremonies occupied the day; but, in the evening, a grand piece of music, composed by Beethoven, and called the Battle of Vittoria, was given to a crowded assembly in the saloon of the Redoute. After this, all things proceeded with tolerable animation, the chief diversions being plays and concerts till the Epiphany. This holi-

day was marked by constant services in the churches, by processions and prayers, and by the total cessation of all public diversions. It was a day of reflection, or it was so reputed, which preceded the commencement of the Carnival, the period of most lively and unremitting amusement. Now the balls began in all their gaiety and spirit; Pic-nics were supported in the redoute saloons; public assemblies were frequented by the second class of the people at the hotels; and other still inferior balls were given in public rooms fitted for the purpose in almost every quarter of the city. All the theatres were open every night; and private parties and splendid court entertainments were daily given. It was towards the close of this period that the first representation of the Carrousel, of which I have spoken, took place. Even during the period of public festivity, the observances of religion were not neglected. Solemn days were held, and grand services and ceremonials were performed in the churches. Amongst these the mass, which was celebrated for the departed soul of Louis XVI. of France, deserves particular mention. A large monumental pyramid, covered with black cloth, was erected in the centre of St Stephen's Church. On the steps of which it was formed, wax lights in large silver candlesticks, were arranged; on the lowest, at each corner, sat a weeping figure; on the summit, the crown, the sceptre, and the insignia of various orders, were deposited; and high above the whole, another crown was suspended, from which black drapery flowed like a canopy; the effect of which, as it floated in the deep darkness of the arched roof, was very striking. Besides this chief funereal decoration, there were several similar ornaments placed in different parts of the church. At the appointed hour, when the sovereigns and their suits, together with all the ambassadors, attended, a grand service was performed, and an oration, writ-

ten by Prince Talleyrand, was pronounced by a priest; the whole ceremony occupying above two hours.

The carnival and its amusements terminated in a grand masquerade on the 6th of February; and all the people began early in the morning of the 7th to receive the ashes of repentance from the hands of the priests. Now commenced a period of less dissipation. The masquerades had ceased, and so had the public balls, but the theatres were still open. In the holy week, however, which arrived in March, all plays were prohibited, but declamation and music were even then allowed in the theatres. The churches were constantly open; and, of the numberless ceremonies and processions, many were calculated to impress but little reverence. The rapid succession of undignified action rather distracts than fixes the attention; and though undoubtedly numbers of the worshippers were seriously and devoutly occupied in prayer, it seemed to be rather in spite of the interference of the priest, than in consequence of his assistance.

On the Thursday of this week, which was the 24th of March, a singular religious ceremony was celebrated by the court. It is known in German Catholic countries by the name of the *Fusswaschung*, or the "washing of the feet." The large saloon, in which public court entertainments are given, was fitted up for the purpose; elevated benches and galleries were constructed round the room for the reception of the court and strangers; and in the area, upon two raised platforms, tables were spread, at one of which sat twelve men, and at the other twelve women. They had been selected from the oldest and most deserving paupers, and were suitably clothed in black, with handkerchiefs and square collars of white muslin, and girdles round their waists.

The emperor and empress, with the archdukes, and the arch-

duchesses, Leopoldine and Clementine, and their suits, having all previously attended mass in the Royal Chapel, entered and approached the table to the sound of solemn music. The Hungarian Guard followed in their most splendid uniform, with their leopard-skin jackets falling from their shoulders, and bearing trays of different meats, which the emperor, empress, archdukes, and attendants, placed on the table, in three successive courses, before the poor men and women, who tasted a little, drank each a glass of wine, and answered a few questions put to them by their sovereigns. The tables were then removed, and the empress and her daughters the archduchesses, dressed in black, with pages bearing their trains, approached. Silver bowls were placed beneath the bare feet of the aged women. The grand chamberlain, in a humble posture, poured water upon the feet of each in succession, from a golden urn, and the empress wiped them with a fine napkin she held in her hand. The emperor performed the same ceremony on the feet of the men, and the rite concluded amidst the sounds of sacred music.

On Good Friday, the burial of our Saviour was commemorated in all the churches. I saw it in St Stephen s. Service was first performed at the grand altar, where the archbishop, bishop, and several of the clergy, officiated. During that time, the crucifix stood upon the altar, concealed from public view. But the veil was at length gradually drawn up, and the body of our Saviour exposed to the adoration of the people; after which the priests, about twenty in number, clad in the most splendid habits of their order, formed themselves in procession; and in the midst stood the archbishop with robes of purple lined with ermine, with a mitre of white silk embroidered with gold; he was accompanied by the bishop, likewise in his full robes. The reverend archbishop, bending with age, bore

the crucifix. They moved solemnly down the middle aisle, pausing from time to time to pay homage to the sacred emblem. They passed up the right aisle to an altar, where the archbishop placed the crucifix upon a bench covered with velvet; and the priests and many attendants advancing in turn, prostrated themselves and kissed the body of our Saviour. Another service being performed, the whole proceeded as before, but accompanied by persons bearing torches, to a chapel in a remote part of the church, where they deposited the crucifix with the utmost solemnity of prayer. Then, returning to the grand altar, they again employed themselves in prayer and chaunting, and at length arrived at the left aisle, which was completely darkened. The light of the torches here illuminated a monumental group of angels in white marble, and a black cross hung with white drapery. Here they repeated similar ceremonies; and soon after, having made another circuit through the church, the procession concluded. There was something in this solemnity more striking than is usual on such occasions. The effect was magnificent. The groups of adoring priests,—the fine Gothic architecture,—and the gloom which pervaded the church,—and the solemn music, were admirably suited to recal a lively remembrance of the events it was intended to commemorate.

During the whole day, the crucifix and the crucified body of our Saviour lay exposed in every church, that the people might pray by it, adore it, kiss, or embrace it, without interruption. In some of the churches, the images were in wax, and of the full size, giving a most exact and awful representation of real death, so that I was scarcely astonished at the emotion which was to be discovered in the countenances of many delicate females who prostrated themselves before these figures.

On Saturday the Host was elevated in all the churches, in

commemoration of the resurrection. The altars were variously ornamented with gilding and lights, but in the chapel of the palace the elevation of the Host was particularly splendid. In other churches there were devices, representing the rolling away of the stone, or the discovery of the empty tomb, or other passages of the sacred history. The figures were inclosed in cases of glass, ornamented with artificial flowers, or tinsel of gold and silver, and before them, during the whole day, might be seen a constant succession of devout worshippers.

In the evening the Imperial family, with all the members of the ecclesiastical establishment, made another solemn and splendid procession round St Stephen's church, in the presence of a vast concourse of people. The following day was Easter Sunday, and, as my landlady, or her servant, had been early at the church with a fine white loaf, some eggs, ham, and horse-radish, folded in a napkin, to receive the blessing of the priest, I was favoured with some of this bread to my coffee, and, after attending the high mass, was invited by my landlord to partake of their family dinner, the first dishes of which were composed of those viands, which the priest had rendered holy in the morning.

Monday was a day of more than usual solemnity, for Christmas-day having been very unfavourable, it had been thought proper to postpone the ceremony, and, of course, the feelings of that day, till Easter Monday, and this borrowed celebration now afforded the chief spectacle.

The grenadiers were drawn up in the aisles of St Stephen's church, and the archbishop and bishop having, in solemn procession, received the Imperial family and their suit, conducted them into the church. They were attended by a large body of pages in their full uniforms of scarlet and gold, and by the Hun-

garian life-guards. Next followed a number of young clergy in white robes, and others more dignified, in purple and red. The archbishop, in his richly embroidered robes of gold, and wearing the mitre, soon entered, accompanied by the bishop, and a crowd of attendants, bearing the crosier, silver crosses, and banners. The archbishop and bishop fell back, and the whole Imperial family, with the ladies of the court, in diamonds and white, and all the chamberlains and gentlemen in their court dresses, walked forwards, bowing to the archbishop as they passed. Having gained the nave of the church, which had been hung with rich tapestry, they all took their seats whilst the service, with sacred music, was performed. This being concluded, they returned to the palace, forming a magnificent procession; the German life-guards in their scarlet uniforms went first; then followed the Hungarian guards, splendid with green, and silver, and leopard skins, mounted as usual on their grey horses; next followed the body of pages, and a great number of servants on foot, in their liveries of black, or yellow, and gold; and after them seven state carriages, red and gold, richly carved, with glass sides, and each drawn by six horses, with superb trappings. The horses of the carriage which bore the Emperor and Empress were greys, with postillions in the most singular flowing robes of black and yellow velvet, and high ostrich feathers in their caps. In the other carriages were the archdukes and archduchesses, and in some the ladies of the court. All the horses and carriages were attended by grooms and pages; and companies of grenadiers, and several cavalry regiments closed the procession, and completed the shew.

In the afternoon the Prater was crowded with carriages, and all the different places of amusement connected with it; the theatre of horsemanship, the carrousals, the swings, the coffee-houses, and tables, were filled by the common people. It was

like a fair, and gave a good idea of the scene which is exhibited almost every summer afternoon in this delightful place of public resort. As dancing was now again permitted, I visited the Redoute in the evening. The alarming news had now arrived that Napoleon had already nearly reached Paris. This, of course, became a great subject of conversation. I observed some of the potentates, however, at a late hour, amusing themselves in this public assembly, walking about, and talking to ladies in masks. This was the conclusion of the holy week, and now amusements returned to their accustomed course.

Such, then, are a few of the more particular pageants of the church exhibited at this season; but, as it is the object of the Catholic forms to recal, by imitation, all the chief events in the lives both of our Saviour and his apostles, ceremonies of a similar kind are occurring every week, and, together with the usual offices of prayer, become an important part in the daily occupation of a strict Catholic worshipper. Thus, for instance, the lady of the house at which I lived, and her family, were accustomed to go to bed by nine o'clock, in order that they might be in church before six in the morning; and, if I wished to return home between four and seven in the afternoon, I ran the risk of finding the door locked upon a deserted house, the inhabitants being all at their devotions. The churches are almost constantly open, and, enter them when you will, servants who have been sent on errands are seen, kneeling before the altars or the images, with their baskets or parcels by their sides. Thus prayer, by its frequency, becomes a habit and recreation, rather than the performance of a duty; and I have often been truly astonished to observe, in the coldest weather, little children, when far from the restraint of their parents, fall down upon their knees before the images, which adorn many of the corners of streets and passages in Vienna, and there remain

fixed for several minutes as in serious devotion. The great multiplicity of holy days interferes with the common occupations of life, without giving that complete periodical and salutary rest, which is derived from a well-observed Sabbath ;—an institution which, amongst us, civilizes and enlightens the lower orders of the people. The Catholic festivals, on the contrary, appear to strengthen feelings which are always enough inclined to go beyond the reach of sober reason ; they encourage the common people to indulge in the raptures of enthusiasm, instead of inducing them to enjoy and improve the solid advantages of domestic comfort and society. Devout and uninformed Catholics seem to be constantly living in an ideal world, perpetually thinking upon and accompanying our Saviour, yet, in point of real imitation and obedience, are at least as far behind as the Protestants.

The amusements of Vienna were scarcely interrupted, though its society experienced an irreparable loss, by the death of the Mareschal Prince de Ligne, who, on the 13th of December, after an illness of some weeks, left the world, of which, for so many years, he had formed a distinguished ornament. He was greatly advanced in years, yet continued, till the period of his last illness, to mingle in society, and frequent public amusements. His vivacity and cheerfulness never deserted him, and in his affectionate intercourse with his family, might be discoverd the purity of the source in which his lively conversation originated. No better tribute can be paid to the heart, as well as to the talents, of this inestimable man, than to state the simple fact, that, when approaching to the age of ninety years, his daughters, with their husbands, children, and grandchildren, young and old, deemed it the greatest privilege and happiness of their lives, to be allowed daily to surround

his table, receive the blessing of his smile, and partake of his instructive and enlivening discourse.

The funeral was conducted with those military honours which his rank in the army demanded, and the body was deposited at a small estate which the prince possessed upon the Kalenberg, about four miles distant from the city. As I stood upon the bastions, I saw the procession pass beneath me to the sound of solemn music; I observed the king of Prussia at a distance upon that part of the wall which had been razed to the ground by the French. I was struck at seeing this monarch—himself a volume in the history of fortune's changes,—witnessing, from the ruined walls of a proud city, the closing scene of all that genius which had once lightly chronicled the mind of his Ancestor, then termed the *Great*, but long since numbered with the untitled dead. When we reflect on the rapid and eventful changes; on the uncertain progress, but the certain termination of the little journey of life; we are sometimes tempted to turn from the bright scenes of prosperity, and rest a moment on the reverse. Nor need we wander far from the scenes of rejoicing before we find a mighty mourner whose lot it was, midst the exultation of fortunate princes, to maintain the dignity of misfortune.

The Empress Maria Louisa was, during all this period, called upon, for the most arduous exercise of resignation, and the most unexampled efforts of patience, amidst the agonies of contending affections, which ever fell to the lot of woman. She suffered with a dignity which did honour to her character. With her infant, to whom but a few months before, the eyes of all Europe had been directed, she lived in quiet seclusion at the palace of Schönbrun, a few miles from Vienna. She took no part in those festivities with which her father's court reechoed, but daily paid a respectful visit to her parents,

and returned to her infant charge, awaiting in patience the result of events over which she could exercise no control. Whatever might be the political feeling with which the fallen Emperor was viewed, it was unmixed commiseration alone which could attend the misfortunes of the Empress and her guiltless child. I was one day tempted by curiosity; if the interest of the object may not deserve a better name; to transgress so far the limits of propriety, as to call with a friend at the palace of Schönbrun, and request that we might be indulged with an introduction to the infant king. We found that all the servants about the palace were Frenchmen, who still wore the liveries of Napoleon. When our request had been made known, a female attendant came to the antichamber and told us, that the child was at present with its mother; but if we could amuse ourselves for an hour in the gardens, and would then return, our curiosity should be gratified. We accordingly came at the appointed time, and were ushered into a room where the infant was sitting on the floor amusing himself, amidst a profuse collection of playthings. We were introduced to Madame Montesquieu, and one or two other ladies who were present. The infant king of Rome; then indeed styled the Prince of Parma; was at the moment occupied with a toy, which imitated a well-furnished kitchen. He was the sweetest child I ever beheld; his complexion light, with fine white silky hair falling in curls upon his neck. He was dressed in the embroidered uniform of an hussar, and seemed to pay little attention to us as we entered, continuing to arrange the dishes in his little kitchen. I believe he was the least embarrassed of the party. He was rather too old to allow of loud praises of his beauty, and rather too young to enter into conversation. His appearance was so engaging, that I longed to take him in my arms, yet his situation forbade such a familiarity. Under these circum-

stances, we contrived a few trifling questions, to which he gave such arch and bashful answers as we have all often received from children of his age, and, after a few minutes conversation with Madame Montesquieu, we withdrew.

It may doubtless be expected, that I should consider somewhat in detail the political subjects of which all the festivities of the Congress were but the humble and unimportant attendants,—but this is by no means my intention. I was never made privy to a single secret of any one of these assembled cabinets; and, however much we might amuse ourselves in idle hours, in the discussion of those varied reports, which sometimes, perhaps, through inadvertency, sometimes from intention, gained a certain currency; I never felt conviction, that we were possessed, in a single instance, of the political view of any minister upon any contested point.

I remember once being in a large party, amongst whom there were several whose situation, connected with the first political characters, would have induced me to believe, that their information upon passing events must be correct and extensive. The conversation fell by chance on the difficulty of obtaining good historical evidence:—Nay, said a lady in the company, I think it might easily be done, if people were a little more in the habit of noting down events which are taking place around them. Even, then, replied a gentleman, it is much more difficult than you imagine. Take, for instance, the fact which is said to have occurred amongst us within these few days, I mean the attempt to carry away the infant King of Rome. Well, cried half a dozen voices, I think we all know that at least; and it was fortunate, said one, that such strict orders had been given at the frontiers, or they would doubtless have succeeded.—Why, madam, said another, you know he never left the palace, it was Madam de Montesquieu who de-

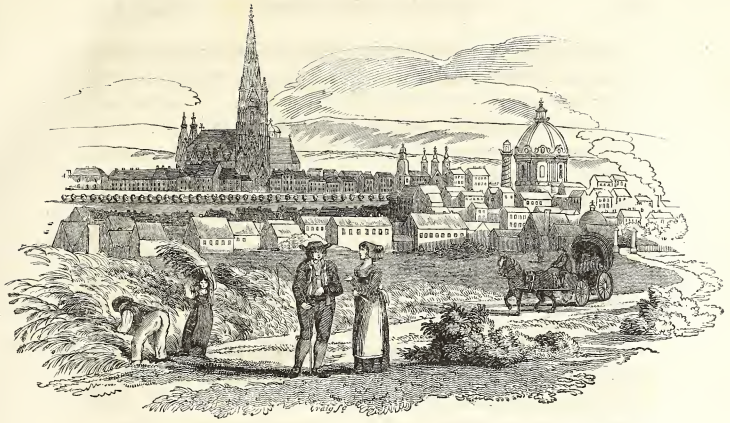
tected the plot.—Madam de Montesquieu! replied a third, Why, the strongest suspicions have attached to her: You know she has been desired to retire to a monastery, and is there in virtual confinement. Oh! no she is still at Schönbrun, but they keep a watch over her. She has been permitted, at her own request, to return to France; said another. Indeed, sir, I should hardly think that, before the mystery of those letters had been cleared up.—What, pray, is the circumstance of those letters to which you allude?—Here a general laugh ensued, and the first gentleman was allowed to have fully made good his proposition,—that, to gain correct historical information, is a matter of no small difficulty. In one fact alone were we all pretty well agreed,—that the infant King had been very suddenly transferred from Schönbrun to the more secure apartments in the Royal Palace of Vienna, where, for the last two days, he had been exhibited pretty constantly from a window looking into the great square.

With such an example before us, I shall certainly be excused for not attempting any detailed account of those proceedings, the general results of which are now known to all. The grand subjects in discussion were the future condition of Poland, Saxony, and the Italian States,—in fact, all those points in which political expediency appeared to be in opposition to justice. It was the difficulties arising on these subjects which caused the proceedings of the Congress to be so long and tedious,—so many different interests to be consulted, so many scruples to be overcome, and so many just and honest men to be perverted from their ways;—what wonder that some months should have elapsed in consulting, in protesting, and in recanting. Of what notes and memorials,—of what representations and concessions—did we not daily hear: of sturdy ministers who faltered, and of faltering ministers who grew firm. In

the midst of all these rumours, it was ever the anxious inquiry, whether England was the steady champion of justice?—whether she boldly asserted and strenously maintained that character which the boasted freedom of her principles led Europe to expect, and which her preeminence, both in arms and finance, seemed to have placed her in a condition to retain? I would, however, caution those skilful diplomatists, who, sitting at their ease, like the champions at a carrousal, know how to vanquish Turk and Moor without sustaining a blemish, not rashly to decide on events, the complicated causes of which must be sought in every remote corner of Europe;—in the interests, the perverseness, the weakness, or the wickedness, as well as the right feelings of every potentate and minister in the civilized world. For myself, I confess I felt almost a personal interest in the fate of Saxony; for, during a residence of some continuance, both at Leipsic and at Dresden, I had so often witnessed the strong feelings excited by the fear of national degradation, and so often been appealed to as an individual of that great and generous nation, which, they doubted not, would espouse their cause, preserve their national integrity, and restore their king; that, though I feared, lest, in this doubtful case, mercy and justice should be at variance, I hoped, almost without expecting it, that judgment might be given in favour of the former.

I will not, however, venture farther upon these disputed points; but will rather conclude a chapter, the object of which has often been to present the scenes of life, enriched by wealth, and ennobled by royalty, by conducting my reader to a gloomy cave, where he may associate with more emperors and empresses now brought low, and more of royal birth, than ever graced the assemblies of a Congress. In an extensive vault beneath the chapel of the Capuchins, in the Mehl Grub, we visited the cemetery of the imperial family. The coffins of bronze here lie

exposed to view, and, from these alone, without having heard the story of the pious monk who conducted us, we at once decyphered that death sought his harvest in the spring and the autumn amongst emperors, as amongst the poor. We here wandered amidst an assemblage of nine emperors, thirteen empresses, and, in all, above eighty of royal and imperial blood. Those who had filled their important stations well, and those who had filled them badly, had come thus far on their journey with those who had never been called upon to act for themselves. Of the remainder of their history, we know nothing; but, before we quitted the vault, the monk, kneeling at the foot of the sarcophagus, which held the remains of Maria Theresa, invited us to join in beseeching a quiet rest to their departed souls.



CHAPTER II.

Gallery of Duke Albert of Saxe-Teschen.—Imperial Collection of Paintings.—Private Collections.—Cabinet of Count Lamberg.—Etruscan Vases.—Imperial Collection of Antiques.—Figured Glass.—Treasury.—Professor Barth.—Works in Mosaic.—Monument by Canova.—Academy of the Fine Arts.—University.—Other Institutions for Education.—Libraries.—Collection of Manufactures.—Learned Men.—Medical and Charitable Establishments.—Nuremberg, the birth-place of Albert Dürer.

Vienna affords much interesting matter to a lover of the fine arts. Of this the single private collection of the Duke Albert of Saxe-Teschen bears sufficient evidence, and would itself repay the pains of any one fond of such pursuits, who should undertake a journey to Vienna.

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This noble collection contains above 12,000 original drawings, and 129,000 engravings, comprising specimens by almost every artist of reputation; and a complete collection of all the maps and military plans which have been published. The whole are disposed in a long and handsome but unornamented gallery, surrounded by a range of cases made to imitate large folio volumes. Each of these is filled either with drawings or prints, placed in chronological order, according to the masters who designed them, and divided into the several schools. Of many of the engravings there are duplicates, all of which, being classed according to the engraver, form a second series.

It would be difficult to say in what school, or what period, this collection is most rich, so perfect is it in all its parts. The series of the early German masters is very full, beginning with the drawings of those who lived before 1420, and who are but little known; then proceeding to Martin Schön, who died in 1486,—to Michel Wohlgemuth, born in 1434,—Israel van Mecheln, who died about 1523,—Mat. Grunewald, who died 1510,—N. Mair, who flourished in 1500,—Albert Dürer, born in 1470, and who died soon after 1527,—Lucas Cranach, born in 1472; —and from him to Hans Burgmair,—Albert Altdorfer,—Hans Baldung,—Hans Schaeuflein, and in succession to the artists of the present day. The drawings by Albert Dürer consist of 159 specimens, and those who have seen them will need no other eulogium on the exquisite talent of this master, the great leader of the German school. There is much delicacy and minuteness, combined with perfect freedom, in all his sketches; and although his works generally betray some of the faults of the early German masters, we are almost tempted to consider the rich invention of his genius as supernatural, when we remember the time in which he lived, the few examples he had to follow, and the very confined sphere which bounded his observation. The greater part of his drawings are executed with a pen,

upon grounds of different tints. Some of the figures are richly coloured with ornamented dresses. Some birds are beautifully finished. A lion and hare, and the wing of a paroquet, flowers, and several heads of aged men, are laboured to an astonishing degree of minuteness. The engravings by this master are the more remarkable, as having formed his own private collection; they are very numerous, and several of them are from drawings in this cabinet. In some instances the successive proof-impressions are preserved, so that the different stages of the work may be clearly traced.

Without attempting a minute detail, it may be mentioned, that this superb cabinet contains a great number of drawings by Raffaelle,—fifty sketches by Claude,—the original private collection of Dietrich, who was professor at Dresden,—and the greater part of the celebrated cabinet of drawings of the Prince de Ligne. Its prodigious extent, or its riches in the works of any particular master, do not constitute its greatest merits. The completeness of the series, gives it inestimable value, as illustrating the history of the arts of design and engraving.

Mr Lefevre, who has the direction and immediate superintendence, is now sedulously engaged in publishing a description, accompanied with engravings, in exact imitation of some of the more curious subjects. The liberal footing on which this gallery is placed, and the easy access which is granted to strangers, are much to be admired. The Duke is frequently himself in the room, pursuing his favourite occupation; for, although far advanced in age, he still takes great pleasure in the collection. Having, with his own hands, formed a full descriptive catalogue, he is now employed in revising it. He is the most zealous and liberal patron of the arts that Vienna can boast.

The Imperial collection of Paintings at the palace called the

Belvedère, in the suburbs, consists of nearly 1400 pictures, distributed in twenty-three rooms, and arranged under the Italian, German, and Flemish schools. There are in each class many of great excellence. The Titians are numerous. It is particularly rich in the works of Rubens, to which nearly two whole apartments are devoted; and there are several fine pieces by Vandyke. With the works of the German masters it is unusually stored. There are some rich and beautiful productions of Albert Dürer; and, on the whole, both the ancient and modern works of this school place it on a footing with the two well-known collections of Munich and Heidelberg. There is, unfortunately, no correct catalogue of the collection; the only one, which was published in 1781, is now, in consequence of the additions and changes which have taken place, of little use. In each room is hung a list of the pictures, and the masters to whom they are ascribed.

Amongst the collections of paintings, that of Prince Esterhazy, at his palace in the suburbs, is one of the most extensive, containing above 500 subjects, the works of an almost equal number of masters; and this is even surpassed in number by the Prince Liechtenstein's, whose paintings amount to above 700.

Some of the smaller and more private collections should not be passed unnoticed. In that of Prince Schönborn, which contains nearly 200 paintings, there are some beautiful works of Rembrandt. One of these, which represents the Philistines depriving Sampson of his sight, displays a singular effect of light. The spectator is supposed to stand within the cave or vault, and the light, coming directly to the centre of the picture, falls upon the figure of Sampson, who is brought to the ground, and is struggling with an armed man. Two others are engaged in binding him, while a fourth is on the point of

perpetrating the cruel deed. Other subjects ascribed to the same master, as, a Descent from the Cross, a Virgin and Child, and a Fortune-teller, are more pleasing, and of great excellence. There are likewise fine Cattle-pieces by Cuyp, and a beautiful head by Carlo Dolce, greatly resembling the celebrated St Cecilia in the Dresden gallery.

Many of the paintings belonging to Count Lamberg are of a very superior class; and the interest which the polite attention and enthusiasm of the proprietor inspired, leads me to particularize some of them. That which may be noticed first, although the Count, when he exhibits his paintings to strangers, carefully preserves it till the last, is a sleeping female figure by Titian, with crimson drapery hanging from a tree, and a fine landscape in the distance. This picture is remarkable for warmth of colour, and boldness of execution. A Sea-port, by Claude, in which the setting sun throws long shadows from the vessels at anchor, on a gently rippling water, is highly valued by the Count. But the Englishman who wishes to appreciate the works of Claude, need not leave his own country, which is at present so rich in them. Some excellent works of Paul Potter add beauty to this gallery; and, particularly, for natural effect and high finish, must be mentioned a Cattle-market, held in a shady grove. On the foreground is a straight rail, over which a dog is leaping. There are a few animated groups of men and cattle in the nearer parts of the picture, and some hundreds of small figures in the more remote avenues of the wood, on which the light falls through the trees in the back of the picture, giving to them a peculiar life and brilliancy. The drawing and perspective are admirable.

The Ruysdales are also very fine, particularly one which represents a rivulet, with wild-fowl rising from it, in the fore-

ground. The wood on each side, and the road leading through the open trees, are perfect nature. In another, the painter seems resolved to shew the creative power of his art; for, having put together a few boards, forming a sheepfold, round the stump of a simple pollard willow, he bids us admire, as a beautiful picture, what in nature we should either not observe, or turn from as unpleasing. There is a magnificent picture by Rubens, of a Tiger and her Whelps, and, by the same master, a group of three female figures, supporting on their heads a basket of flowers. There are, likewise, two beautiful sketches by him, of Morning driving away Night; and a finished sketch, intended as a study for a large picture to be placed in the town-house of Amsterdam, but which was never painted. It is a rich composition, and represents the different provinces paying their homage.

The collection boasts of three paintings by Murillo, of which one is a flower-girl, and one a genuine specimen of his lower style. Two boys sitting on the ground play with dice for acorns, which are in a handkerchief by their side. Their ragged clothing, their swarthy complexion, their unwashed feet, are all evidently from the pencil of Murillo. Velasquez has here a noble portrait of a lady. A Game piece by Weenix, has obtained, by the management of the artist, an importance above its subject. A white peacock hangs in the middle of this picture; by its side lies some dead game; and, in the back-ground, is an old Flemish garden. The light falls immediately on the large white bird in the centre, producing a most imposing effect.

Three characteristic pieces by Van Heyden, painted with his curious attention to minuteness. Every brick in the Dutch buildings, and every stone in the pavement, is a portrait; yet he manages, with all this, not to lose the general good effect of light and shade.

A landscape, by Poussin, with a lake in the centre, level, and

deep:—noble mountains rise behind, and a shepherd leads his flocks on the grassy banks by the water side. In another piece, Loutherbourg's transparent waves are dashing the rock, against which a miserable shipwrecked crew are clinging for their safety. The pencil of Hondekoeter puts articulate murmurs into the attitude of an angry cock, who reluctantly retreats before the loud reproaches of the anxious father defending his young brood of turkeys. The eye may here wander over the varied lights and shades of Vernet's landscapes. With Bourguignon you may enter fierce and bloody battles. Rachael Ruysch, and Van Huysum, are forming flowery wreaths for the victors; and Vandyke confers immortality upon the hero. In short, few collections can be found of equal extent, which afford so many truly good, and truly characteristic specimens of the art, as the cabinet of Count Lamberg.

Besides his pictures, the Count possesses a beautiful collection of those ancient vases, which are termed Etruscan. There are above four hundred of them, many of which are large, and the designs with which they are ornamented, highly remarkable for elegance and taste. These, as well as his paintings, were chiefly collected when he was minister from Austria at the court of Naples. The vases have been purchased by the Government, to be added, after the death of Count Lamberg, to the imperial collection, which already contains about two hundred specimens of the same kind.

The Count and his friend the Abbé Mazzuola have been at some pains in arranging the cabinet, and in tracing out, from the internal evidence of the specimens, the progressive steps employed in the ornamental part of this manufacture. The process seems to have been simple. The vessel having been formed and baked, is supposed to have been of a light red colour, and was then plunged into a fluid in which a fine

ochery earth was suspended. This gave a slight glaze, and deepened the colour. The outline of the ornamental design was then traced with an instrument, which indented rather than scratched the surface. Next with a pencil, a black line, about the tenth of an inch in width, was drawn round the figures, thus defining the subjects with exactness. The vacant space between the figures was then filled up with a black glazing matter, and the different parts of the figures, the lines of the drapery, and the features, traced with the same material, after which the vessel was again submitted to the fire. The whole of the process may be followed pretty clearly by observing attentively different vases. 1st, The simple baked clay is seen, of a light red colour, on the bottoms of the vessels where there is neither glaze nor design, or where partial exfoliations have taken place. 2dly, Upon careful examination, indented outlines, traced in a rude manner, may be discerned, and sometimes lines of the same kind are seen even to intersect the figures. 3dly, Most of the designs are surrounded by a portion of the black paint, which, being higher than the general surface, has the appearance of a partial double coating, limited to about one tenth of an inch. 4thly, In one vase, found in an unfinished state, the black is but in part laid on, and looks like work done with a coarse hair pencil with paint not very fluid. I have some doubt, however, whether the first outline was traced after the first general coating, or whether it was not marked on the unburnt clay.

This subject is treated of at large, as I believe, by the Abbé, in a description of this collection, illustrated by plates, and published at Paris.

The national collection of Antiques occupies some apartments in the Imperial Palace. The statuary in this collection is very insignificant. The chief objects, worthy of any atten-

tion, are a few fine marble busts, and one or two figures; more remarkable, from the remote situation in Pannonia, and other distant parts of the Austrian Empire, in which they have been found, and on the history of which they throw some light; than from their workmanship. The collection of small bronze figures is numerous; several of them are of exquisite design, and skilfully moulded. Some figures and busts, cut completely out of precious stones, boast of considerable beauty; and in the same cabinet, is a bowl above two feet in diameter, formed from a single mass of agate. The inimitable collection of antique cameos and intaglios, and the extensive cabinet of coins and medals, are, however, the great ornaments of this collection. Forty of the most remarkable cameos were, as is well known, excellently engraved, and published at Vienna, with descriptions by Abbé Eckhel in 1788. The whole cabinet remains unimpaired by the ravages of the war, after having been, together with the collection of minerals and natural history, three several times carried down the Danube into the Bannat, to preserve it from the plundering grasp of the French.

Of that most exquisite piece of workmanship, the cameo of the Apotheosis of Augustus, it is impossible to speak in terms of sufficient praise. It is executed on a sardonyx, of nearly eight inches square, claiming for itself the third or fourth place in point of magnitude, amongst the specimens of antiquity in this department of art, and is considered by all the principal writers upon the subject, as the first in point of design and execution. The white layer from which the figures are formed, is thin and sufficiently translucid to permit the dark stone beneath to appear through those parts, where the folds of the drapery and other lines are deeply cut. This adds great beauty and variety to the picture; while the rich dark brown of the stone, forming the ground of the design, affords a fine contrast and relief to the figures.

The subject of the design is supposed to be a flattering allegory, representing Augustus enthroned amongst the gods, and filling the station of Jupiter. His wife Livia seated by his side, is figured as the goddess Rome, and near the throne are gathered Neptune, Cybele, and the goddess of abundance, attendants on his state. Germanicus and Tiberius, crowned with victorious laurels, present themselves with respectful dignity, before the august chief of the family, who receives them with tranquillity and composure, unmoved by surprise or pleasure, as conscious, beforehand, that victory must attend the footsteps of Tiberius; or unwilling to sully the purity of justice, by even the appearance of the partial smiles of favour.

Such is the principal group which occupies one half of this superb cameo. The second, which is quite unconnected, represents Roman soldiers erecting a trophy to Augustus, accompanied by prisoners of war. The sculptor, conjectured to have been Dioscorides, has succeeded, in a most astonishing manner, in giving such a grace to the principal figures, that, while gazing with admiration, the mind of the observer is never called to reflect on the difficulties which must attend every work of this nature, and whilst his eye follows the traces worn with such incalculable labour in the hardest flint, it pursues in fancy the pencil in its light and flowing course. Although there is no other gem in this collection, which approaches to the splendour of the Apotheosis of Augustus, yet there are others of extraordinary size, and some of the smaller ones of exquisite workmanship. I shall of these mention one only, which may serve as an example, and assist in stimulating, not in satisfying, curiosity.

A cameo cut in a sardonyx, of about two inches in length, represents the return of Orestes to Argos, accompanied by his friend Pylades, to revenge the death of Agamemnon, his

father, by the murder of his own mother, Clytemnestra, and Ægisthus, who had usurped the throne of Argos. The murder is already perpetrated. The body of Clytemnestra, breathing her last, is depicted with all the tranquillity of death; and the soft limbs and placid sleep of a helpless woman, are finely contrasted with the force which still marks the convulsed attitude, and the clenched palms of her dying consort. The young men, amazed and disgusted at the horrid deed, stand motionless with their weapons still uplifted, turning their eyes from the objects which their bloody hands strive to conceal; whilst attending slaves evince their deep interest in the scene.

The collection of Etruscan vases includes many fine specimens. With them are several vessels of ancient glass, and a large display of figured glasses and enamels; shewing the great variety and extent to which this manufacture had been carried by the ancients.

Among these are many pieces of an ornamented glass, to which my attention had been called by Klaproth whilst I was at Berlin. This learned and accurate philosopher was then engaged in preparing a memoir for the academy, describing the specimens of his own collection, and what he could discover of their history, and the art of making them, which he considers to be of great antiquity. The first specimens he had obtained accidentally, but had since, with great diligence, added to them. The whole number in Klaproth's cabinet was about fourteen. They had been cut with care; one for the lid of a box, another the guard of a sword, (of course only for shew,) and others for the heads of canes, or, as the Professor himself supposes, of sceptres. In the Imperial collection, there are probably one hundred and fifty specimens. Their peculiarity consists in being variegated with regular patterns in different colours, which pervade the whole substance. In those

in Klaproth's possession, they are generally stars differently disposed. In one instance, a circle of the diameter of one-tenth of an inch forms a centre, round which leaflets, as of a flower, are uniformly arranged. These patterns more nearly resemble the silicious madreporites from Antigua, than any thing I remember to have seen, except as to colour, the body or base of the glass being either transparent and colourless, or blue, or green, or opaque red; whilst the stars or patterns are variegated in red, yellow, white, and green, producing great diversity with much beauty and richness.

Many of those at Vienna are exceedingly beautiful, having the same star-like forms, in red, green, and white, on dark grounds. In others, the artists have arrived at greater perfection; the different colours, being arranged in waved or straight lines, form a regular border; and in one, the spaces between the straight lines are occupied by a running pattern. An oblong piece, an inch and a half in length, and one-fourth of an inch in thickness, shews half the full face of a woman, divided down the middle. The forehead is adorned by a yellow striped tiara, and a red ear-ring is suspended from the ear; the face is nearly white. The eyes, eye-lids, and lashes, as well as the contour of the nose and mouth, are marked by dark lines, which, when held to the light, shew a deep purple. The ground is of a dark colour, and, on examining the edges, it appears that all the colours, as was the case in the other specimens, extend through the whole thickness. A circumstance is observable on minutely inspecting the white of the face, which gives an idea of its having been formed by letting in pieces by the side of each other; for there is the appearance of straight lines, forming two squares, the one containing within it the eye, the other including the nose, and the white colour of the one is more pure than that of the other. Yet the edges shew, where broken,

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that the conchoidal fractures pass uninterruptedly from one to the other, as if the substance were perfectly simple, and homogeneous.

Another represents the upper part only of a female head, including one eye; the hair is ornamented with two green vine leaves, which bear the appearance of having been inserted, and formed of a more durable composition than the rest, since they project a little above the general surface, probably being less corroded by the atmosphere, or some other solvent, which appears to have acted upon the surface of the other parts.

I have been more particular in my account of these remnants of antiquity than I should have been, had I not believed that they are very rare, and consequently objects of more than ordinary curiosity.

To attempt any description of the very extensive collections of antique coins and medals would be endless. They are highly valuable, both for antiquity and for workmanship, giving proofs of an early proficiency in the art of coining, which, in many respects, with all our modern improvements, we are totally unable to imitate. The collection of modern coins is likewise of most surprising extent, and in number and variety is esteemed the first in Europe.

The Imperial treasury contains a few antiques, but is more rich in modern works. Amongst these are some curious pieces of clock-work, and several of the earliest watches which were made at Nuremberg, and which, from their oval form, are well known to have obtained the name of eggs; much curiously carved ivory; numerous magnificent vessels cut in crystal; others worked from blocks of jasper and agate; most splendid cups and lamps formed from solid masses of rich lapis-lazuli, and a vessel ten inches in height, by four in diameter, cut from

a clear topaz. Such objects, equally wonderful as productions of nature as of art, form a grand display, and, with a large assortment of crowns, sceptres, and jewelled ornaments, make up the chief attractions of the treasury. One small apartment is, however, well worthy of attention, as containing a very extensive collection of the early labours of Raffaelle, while he was employed as a designer on Italian pottery.

This collection was received as a present from the Pope, and the greater part has been disposed, both for security and for beauty, in the arched ceiling of a small room, where it is displayed as concave enamelled pictures occupying the centre of each of the square compartments of carved wood. In the gallery of the little Belvedere, are likewise some pieces of this ware, which even excel, in size and execution, any to be found in the treasury. The general appearance of these early works of the great master are known to all, and, though at times much talent is discernible under the roughness of the style, and the glaring yellows and greens in which they are executed; yet their intrinsic merits would never have bestowed upon these productions the value and interest which the subsequent eminence of Raffaelle has attached to every production of his hands.

As a private collection, that of Professor Bahrdt must not be passed over in silence,—a man who, in the science of medicine, has done much to raise the character of Vienna; but whose enthusiastic love of the arts has unfortunately too much centered within himself. This extraordinary man, now arrived at a very advanced age, has long retired from society, and, surrounded in his cottage by gems, antiques, and drawings, conceals himself beneath a cynic mask, which it requires all the solicitation of old friendship to withdraw even for a moment; and then as it were tantalizing, he offers only a cursory view of what might add so greatly to the pleasure and instruction of society.

The antiques within his cabinet, and the gems within his mind, are equally denied to those who would seek them with ordinary claims. We may, however, hope that the world will shortly be made partaker in these treasures, as he has been long engaged in preparing a work on the subject of his Cameos, and has already had the engravings executed under his own eye, by a very promising young artist, whom he has himself instructed.

Of the middle ages of the arts we likewise find many valuable memorials in the public collections, amongst which, no one is more striking than a finely sculptured table ornament from the hands of Benvenuto Cellini, preserved in the little Belvedere; and, descending to more modern times, and an inferior art, may be mentioned the almost unequalled collection of Mosaic works, executed at Florence, which ornament the walls of a spacious apartment in the palace. The landscapes, which are produced by the inlaying of different coloured polished stones, are so nicely shaded, that, for a moment, the eye is deceived into the belief that they are paintings; and in some, particularly the four last executed views of Leghorn, the delicacy of the shades, and the ease of the figures, are truly surprising. A school for the improvement of this art has likewise been established by the Emperor at Milan, where a fine imitation of the Last Supper, by Leonardo da Vinci, has lately been produced.

To turn, however, to what may be deemed the highest sphere in which the labours of the artist can be directed, and to an example of the perfection which it has again reached, let us contemplate one of the noblest works of Canova, the modern, the still living Phidias.

On entering the *Augustiner Kirk*, a monument, erected by Duke Albert of Saxe-Teschen to the memory of his wife, at once rivets the attention. Towards the summit of a pyramid of grey marble, an ascending angel bears on a medallion

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the image of the departed; beneath, the door-way of the sepulchre lies open. The lion, which should have guarded its entrance, sleeps; and the protecting genius of the disconsolate husband, wearied with watching, has rested his head upon the lion's mane, and resigned himself to melancholy. Virtue, bearing the ashes of her friend, trusting her melancholy, measured steps to the guidance of Innocence and spotless Purity, enters the unguarded vault; while Charity, supporting an aged mourner, and directing with mild control the footsteps of an orphan, follows the companion of her grief towards the mausoleum of their common votary. Composed and tranquil sorrow has spread its softest influence on this mournful procession. The features are distorted by no passions; the eyes drop no tears; but the unmoistened dust, embalmed by the sweet incense of affection, will rest within the tomb, and give a sad reality to those pangs which the sculptured marble would itself have claimed.

After speaking of this sublime monument, to describe the statuary of inferior workmanship with which the open places or the fountains of Vienna are ornamented; to mention the works of Matthieli, of Donner, or of Strudel,—would be placing merit in the shade, and soliciting comparisons, which must prove injurious to the reputation these excellent artists have obtained, at a time when they are no longer able to contend for the meed of victory.

For the encouragement of native talent, an academy of the fine arts was instituted in 1704, and has been since continued, with proper professors and teachers, under the imperial patronage. But the political events which have distracted this country, have rendered it uncongenial to the progress of art; and considering Vienna as the capital of the German empire, we are surprised to find so few artists whose works merit the highest praise.

The antiques within his cabinet, and the gems within his mind, are equally denied to those who would seek them with ordinary claims. We may, however, hope that the world will shortly be made partaker in these treasures, as he has been long engaged in preparing a work on the subject of his Cameos, and has already had the engravings executed under his own eye, by a very promising young artist, whom he has himself instructed.

Of the middle ages of the arts we likewise find many valuable memorials in the public collections, amongst which, no one is more striking than a finely sculptured table ornament from the hands of Benvenuto Cellini, preserved in the little Belvedère; and, descending to more modern times, and an inferior art, may be mentioned the almost unequalled collection of Mosaic works, executed at Florence in Pietra duro, which ornament the walls of a spacious apartment in the palace. The landscapes, which are produced by the inlaying of different coloured polished stones, are so nicely shaded, that, for a moment, the eye is deceived into the belief that they are paintings; and in some, particularly the four last executed views of Leghorn, the delicacy of the shades, and the ease of the figures, are truly surprising.

To turn, however, to what may be deemed the highest sphere in which the labours of the artist can be directed, and to an example of the perfection which it has again reached, let us contemplate one of the noblest works of Canova, the modern, the still living Phidias.

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pulchre lies open. The lion, which should have guarded its entrance, sleeps; and the protecting genius of the disconsolate husband, wearied with watching, has rested his head upon the lion's mane, and resigned himself to Grief. Virtue, bearing the ashes of her friend, trusting her melancholy measured steps to the guidance of Innocence and spotless Purity, enters the unguarded vault; while Charity, supporting an aged mourner, and directing with mild control the footsteps of the orphan, follows the bright companion of her grief towards the mausoleum of their common votary. Composed and tranquil sorrow has spread its softest influence on this mournful procession. No passion may distort the features, the eye may drop no tear; but the unmoistened dust, embalmed by the sweet incense of affectionate feeling and regret, will rest within the tomb, and give a sad reality to those pangs which the sculptured marble would itself have claimed from the breast of sympathy.

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As a sculptor, however, Zauner has distinguished himself; and a very fine example of his skill is to be seen in the bronze equestrian figure of Joseph II. in the centre of the square, called the Joseph Platz; and both the apartments in the academy and the buildings of the city have received valuable embellishment from the labours of Fischer.

Amongst the living artists, Füger, the present director of the Belvedère gallery, is celebrated as an historical and portrait painter. The productions of Rosa are likewise admirable; and several engravers have given proofs of skill. Kininger, in a late engraving after a fine portrait of Jacquin by Füger, has done himself the greatest honour. But, with the exceptions of these, and a few who might be associated with them, there is but little matured talent in any department of the fine arts. There is, however, a considerable share of that marketable mediocrity which arises from the demand for models for the porcelain manufacture; and, for inferior paintings of battles, landscapes, and costumes, with which many shops in Vienna are stored. The engraving of maps is much encouraged, and carried to great perfection. Some of them are in the highest style of finish, exhibiting a complete and comprehensive representation of the character of the country they are meant to delineate. The military operations, which may be said to have been constantly going forwards, have given rise to a very extended sale of maps on the Continent; and Vienna, from the multitude of strangers and military men who are constantly passing through it, has become a central point for this traffic.

Amongst the public institutions of Vienna, there is one, the object of which is to bring together into one view specimens of all the manufactured products of the Austrian dominions, and, from time to time, contrast or illustrate them by specimens from other countries. Professor Witmansteder, a man

of much acuteness and knowledge, was the director of the Museum, and under his care it has been chiefly formed.

This collection presents at once an interesting and extensive view of the magnitude and diversity of the Austrian manufactures, which, though they seldom equal those of England, yet, from their variety, give proofs of a power which wants only the freedom that peace and an enlightened government may give, and the security which the present financial system is expected to afford, to become a mighty source of national wealth.

Many of the manufactures have suffered greatly by the war. Whilst, however, the distresses of war have acted as a check upon some, and the diminution of public credit has utterly destroyed others, still there are several which have received beneficial encouragement from the difficulty of intercourse with our island. Amongst these may be placed the fabric of cotton, which ranks with that of any European nation excepting England and Saxony, and is said to have lately employed within the Austrian dominions not less than 360,000 persons. This manufacture is carried to the greatest extent in Austria-proper, where there are thirty-three manufactories of cotton goods, several of twist, besides seven printing-houses. In many instances the English machinery and improvements have been very closely imitated. Bohemia, and particularly Prague and Kuttenberg, partake in this trade. In Moravia, Lettowitz, and in Styria, Gratz, are the principal towns in which it is carried on.

Articles of iron and steel form an important part of the collection at Vienna, this being a manufacture in which great progress has been made in various parts of Austria.

The number of iron forges in the empire amount to 1000, of which the most extensive are in Bohemia, in the country

above and below the Ens, and in Styria. The Carlsbad steel-ware is noted throughout Germany. The town of Steyer has within its circuit 12,000 men employed in the manufacture of iron-ware. In Vienna itself, much very fine ornamental steel-work is executed; and at Wardhofen small articles are made in great perfection. In proof of this, there are shewn at the museum, fish-hooks of most astonishing minuteness, above 11,630 weighing only one lode (half an ounce.) Styria has above 200 forges, which annually yield 280,000 cwt. of iron, of which a considerable portion is converted within the province into scythes and various other edged tools. Cast as well as wrought iron is here brought to much perfection, though it is by no means so fine as that of the Prussian manufactures in Silesia, where the management is so skilful, and the iron of such quality, that the most minute articles, such as small medallions, and casts of gems for necklaces or seals, are formed with edges so sharp and perfect, that they have the appearance of being cut with a graver, or stamped with a die. The Austrians have not yet applied cast-iron so extensively, and to works of as much importance, as we have. Whilst I was at Vienna, Baaden was fixed upon as the place where the first trial should be made of the security and advantages of an iron bridge. It was accordingly cast in Bohemia, and brought to its place of destination, a little rivulet which runs near that town. The bridge was opened with great pomp, attended by the celebration of an appropriate religious ceremony. The court and clergy had already passed, when, a crowd of people suddenly rushing upon the bridge, it gave way in the centre, and broke off at both ends near the springing of the arch, and nearly four hundred people were precipitated in its ruins.

Glass and porcelain formed a more ornamental department in the museum, and are manufactures of much consequence to

the empire. Of the former there are 170 works in the Austrian dominions, of which 78 are in Bohemia, and the article produced from them is of the finest kind. The most magnificent services and lustres are exported to Spain, Russia, and America. Plate-glass has also attained its highest perfection, particularly at Neuhaus, in the province below the Ens, where mirrors are cast of the largest size and best quality.

The porcelain of Vienna is well known. The manufacture is situated in the suburb of Rossau, and employs above 600 workmen, of whom about 100 are painters. The china is of a strong texture, but falls far short of that of Berlin or Meissen in elegance, both of form and ornament. I was shewn two magnificent vases of green and gold, which were preparing as a present for the Emperor of Russia; and yet even in these some of the figures were but badly proportioned, and many of the flowers merely productions of the imagination. This species of bad taste is probably owing to the great demand for china ornamented with gay and lively flowers, for the supply of Turkey. The unsettled state of Europe had greatly checked the demand for this china; but it is rapidly advancing to its former extent. Of the richest silks, the museum boasts a large variety; but this manufacture, once so flourishing, has been almost destroyed by the war. Before the French Revolution, it employed at Vienna alone 6000 looms. In 1803, it was reduced nearly one-third; and, at the time of which I speak, many establishments had been totally given up, and others were on the decline. Many most beautiful articles of rich embroidered silk are to be found in the palaces of the wealthy, or the museum of the Emperor; but this fabric has been discontinued, and the looms are chiefly employed in weaving shawls, to which all the females of the capital continue to give great encouragement. Vienna is the chief, but not the

only, seat of the silk manufacture in Austria, many of the principal towns participating, but not extensively.

Linen is an article of much importance; and, particularly in Bohemia and Moravia, it is carried to great extent and perfection. In the year 1801, the number of spinners of flax in Bohemia alone amounted to 320,000, and the weavers to 85,000; and, by the calculations made in 1808, they appear to be increasing.

In Moravia, without enumerating those who weave for their domestic purposes, the numbers employed in spinning are supposed to amount to 24,000, and in weaving to 16,000. In the different branches of the woollen manufacture throughout the dominions, it is calculated that about 600,000 individuals are engaged. That a correct as well as a general view may be afforded of the kinds and varieties of both these important branches of manufacture, the museum is provided, not only with whole pieces of different colours and qualities, but also with voluminous books of patterns, arranged in series, illustrative of various points.

One part of the museum, resembling a toy-shop, was particularly entertaining, being furnished with articles made in Brechtesgaden. Many of them are so trifling, that they may appear ridiculous; but their prices, being surprisingly low, may be worth notice; for instance,

10 dozen	dancing-dolls sold for	1 florin
20 ditto	needle-cases - -	1
20 ditto	cricket-houses - -	1
20 ditto	painted tables - -	1
20 ditto	cradles with children -	1

with an immense variety of other articles of the same description.

As workers in wood, the Germans have long been celebrated, and their skill is beautifully displayed in all the household furniture of Vienna, the polish of which is exquisite. The elegance of their inlaid floors make the stranger regret less than he otherwise would do, the absence of a comfortable carpet,—a luxury there almost unknown.

The variety of other articles of Austrian manufacture exhibited at this museum, is most extensive; but it would be needless to enumerate them, my only object being to shew the nature of this national exhibition.

Having taken this hasty view of the Austrian manufactures, and of the state of the fine arts in Vienna, the next inquiry may be, whether the Austrians have succeeded in the pursuits of science, or whether, labouring under depressing causes, their energy has been damped, and their progress rendered slow? The number of scientific men in Vienna, when considered as the capital of a great empire, is unusually small, their intercourse with each other is limited, and the spirit of literary association; which, in Berlin and the north of Germany, is at its height; is unknown at Vienna. There is no philosophical or scientific community; a few insulated individuals, led on by the ardour of their disposition, and cheered by a feeling of self-satisfaction, pursue their labour in the midst of the neglect of their fellow-citizens.

The Austrian government greatly discountenances all assemblies and societies of men, whether their purposes be friendly, scientific, or political. Every thing of this kind is viewed with a suspicious eye, and the result has been, that, with the exception of a single small medical society, all such opportunities for literary intercourse are wanting.

The same system of coercion and examination which pervades the political and outward state of the Austrian subject,

only seat of the silk manufacture in Austria, other principal towns participating to a small extent.

Linen is an article of much importance; and Bohemia and Moravia are the principal seats of the manufacture. In the year 1801, the number of spinners of flax in Bohemia alone amounted to 230,000; the weavers to 85,000; and, by the calculations made in 1808, they appear to be increasing. In Moravia, without enumerating those who weave for domestic consumption, the numbers employed in spinning are supposed to amount to 24,000, and in weaving to 16,000. The finest linens, however, are obtained from Austrian Silesia, where above 80,000 pieces are annually fabricated, without any large establishments for the purpose. The province over the Enns and Galicia also partake extensively, having above 60,000 individuals engaged in the manufacture.

For the manufacture of woollen goods, Moravia ranks highest, and in this province 26 towns are particularly distinguished. The number of workmen amounts to 140,000 or 150,000; and the produce is above 252,000 pieces of fine and common cloth and woollen-stuffs; besides 10,000 ells of coarse woollen for the peasantry, and 1000 pieces of blanketing, with other articles. In Bohemia this manufacture occupies above 88,000 persons, who prepare 123,797 pieces of cloth; 66,448 pieces of woollen-stuff; and above 60,000 dozen of stockings. At Linz, in the province over the Enns, is situated the largest woollen manufactory in Germany. It employs 25,000 hands in making cloths, woollen-stuffs, and carpeting. The four towns of Bielitz, Odrau, Wagstadt, and Wigstadt, in Austrian Silesia, yield nearly 60,000 pieces annually. The province under the Enns has likewise considerable woollen manufactories. Styria, Carinthia, Hungary, Transylvania, and Galicia, are much less productive, making chiefly the coarsest goods,

for the use of the lower orders and the peasantry. In all the various branches of this trade, it is computed that 600,000 Austrian subjects find employment. In order to afford a correct, as well as a superficial or general view of all the various products of these different manufactories, the museum is provided not only with entire pieces of different colours and qualities, but likewise with voluminous books of patterns, arranged in series, illustrating the progress of the manufacture, and the objects of inquiry connected with them.

Leather is another manufacture very generally diffused. In this Hungary takes a considerable part; at Pressburg, Fünfkirchen, Ratko, Jolschwa, Ofen, Pesth, and in the towns of Zips, they prepare leather which ranks with that of Vienna. The leather of Bohemia and Moravia is also good. In the manufacture of paper, Austria is very deficient; a circumstance which displays itself still more in the quality than in the quantity of the article produced. Paper-mills are established in all the provinces, but the superior kinds are chiefly imported. —One department of the museum resembled a toy-shop, and was furnished with many articles from Brechtesgaden; some of which are so trifling as to appear ridiculous, yet, from the excessive lowness of their prices, are rendered objects of curiosity. As workers of wood, indeed, in all its forms, the Germans have long been celebrated, and their skill is beautifully displayed in the household furniture of Vienna, which, for perfection in finish, and the skilful adaptation of the different species of indigenous wood, may vie with the cabinet-ware of any metropolis in Europe. The elegance of the inlaid floors, which adorn the private houses as well as the palaces of Vienna, leave the stranger less room to regret the absence of that rarest of all luxuries,—a comfortable carpet. A great variety of manufactured goods might still be introduced into this casual sketch,

but I shall content myself with mentioning one other article, which claims a most important place amongst the inventions of man. I refer to gunpowder; of which Austria not only makes sufficient for her own consumption, but supplies a large quantity to Turkey; Styria alone manufacturing above 1000 centners. The saltpetre and sulphur are obtained plentifully from Bohemia, Galicia, Hungary, Transylvania, and Croatia.

In an account which is sometimes published of what are termed the "*Academic and Citizen Artists*" of Vienna, nothing is more remarkable than the great proportion of musicians, and the makers of musical instruments. In truth, if there be any art cultivated and encouraged in Vienna, it is music; yet, singular as it may appear, in the very country where the piano was invented, and the town where so many makers are employed, Beethoven, the ornament of the art, is forced to seek a good instrument from the English capital.

With respect to the general state of science in Vienna, it is certainly far from flourishing. The mode of education is very artificial and laborious, and for all those who aspire to any situation about the court, even the office of chamberlain, an object of every well born Austrian's ambition,—is marked out with the most minute precision for every month, during nearly thirteen years. The censorship of the press is likewise exercised with activity, and many foreign publications are prohibited, on account of their moral as well as their political tendency. The number of scientific men is small, their intercourse with each other is limited, and the spirit of literary association so little understood, that, with the exception of a small medical society, all opportunities of mutually communicating information are neglected. It is most true that science has liberal and enlightened supporters even amongst

and in the Imperial family itself is encouraged, particularly by the Archduke John, who is its powerful patron, and zealous votary. But this is not enough; a prevailing inspiration is wanting. The zeal and interest occasioned by discussion,—the emulation arising from comparison,—the hopes centred in success,—are all wanting to the culture; while to the patronage of science are wanting the general feeling of its worth, and the interest excited by the frequent perusal of its discoveries, and its speculations, first exciting the mind to listen to its voice, and gradually leading it to delight in its language. Nevertheless, the university and the public institutions of Vienna draw forth and collect, as it were by force, a certain sum of science and literature; and, at present, there are learned men, who, in spite of the want of encouragement, and the absence of the ordinary excitements, have obtained, by their zeal and industry, a high rank amongst the promoters of science, and cultivators of literature. Foremost of these stands the aged and revered Jacquin, who may, with propriety, be styled the leader of the little band of scientific persons now residing in Vienna.

After a life of much active exertion as professor at the schools of Schemnitz, as a voyager to the islands of the West Indies, and as the professor of botany in the university of Vienna,—a course which has been marked by the splendid botanical works, and the numerous discoveries to which it has given rise,—this respected investigator of nature now reposes in the quiet of a matured old age; and, approaching to his ninetieth year, he frequently joins, with life, and always with intelligence, in the conversation of his friends. His interest in botanic discoveries, the favourite pursuit of his younger days, has, in a remarkable degree, passed away; but he still relates the scenes and incidents of the earlier periods of his life, with all the clearness and accuracy which would attend the relation of the most

recent occurrences. He passes his tranquil days in the bosom of his son's family, residing during the winter at Vienna, and delighted to mark the approach of spring, which summons them to their country residence, in the midst of the Botanic Garden which has grown under his protection, and where every tree hails him as its friend, and recals the cares and pleasures of his youthful toils.

His son, Baron Jacquin, is the worthy supporter of this aged naturalist, and his able successor in the pursuits of science. He at present holds the botanical chair in the university, and as professor of chemistry, delivers a very valuable course of lectures to a numerous class. His house and table are open in the most hospitable and friendly manner to all those who feel any regard for the book of nature, or any interest in the laws by which she directs her extended operations. And his weekly meetings glow with the same spirit, if they cannot flourish to the same extent, as those justly admired assemblies which give life, and interest, and union, to the efforts of science in our own country, under the auspices and beneath the roof of its firmest and most constant friend.

The daughter of Baron Jacquin is married to Dr Schreibers, a naturalist of extensive knowledge, and unremitted assiduity. He resides with his family in apartments in the Imperial museum of natural history, of which he has the general superintendence.

This museum occupies several large rooms in the Bourg, and embraces all the different branches of natural history, including mineralogy. The zoological part is very extensive, having been collected and arranged with great care and expence. It has been furnished with many valuable specimens from the menagerie of Schönbrun, which was formerly much better stored with rare animals than it now is. The museum of Sir Ashton Lever furnish-

ed many very curious articles to this department, and opportunities have never been neglected of purchasing collections or individual specimens which might add to its value. Whilst I was at Vienna, Dr Schreibers was very busily occupied in some minute investigations upon the history and habits of the amphibia indigenous in Austria. For the better conducting these inquiries, he has a large flat space upon the roof of the building, where he keeps living animals of various species, in cages or in water, making his daily observations upon the changes they undergo, and the habits they evince. In his study he pursues his microscopic researches, and, with the assistance of a most able artist, has obtained a valuable collection of drawings, illustrating the objects of his examination.

Dr Bremser, the coadjutor of his labours, was as ardently engaged in elucidating the history of the parasitical animals which live in the internal structures of the larger species. The collection of these objects, preserved in spirits, was commenced by Dr Schreibers in 1803, and may now boast of greater extent and value than any other which exists. The pains which have been taken to render it complete do the highest honour to all the parties concerned, and afford an excellent example to the directors of great national institutions, for the improvement of our knowledge in the more hidden secrets of nature.

The mineralogical part of the museum is deposited in cases arranged through a suit of rooms, where the more splendid specimens are displayed. The whole consists of nearly 100,000, amongst which, as might be expected from the extent and mineral riches of the Austrian dominions, are a great number of the most magnificent and valuable which are any where to be seen. That which is always shewn to strangers with the greatest exultation, is the Noble Opal from the

mines of Kaschau, which weighs above seventeen ounces, and is supposed to be the largest mass of this mineral ever found.

One among the most curious series in this collection, is undoubtedly that of meteoric stones, or aerolites. Several are from the shower which fell at Stannen, in Moravia, in 1808, whither Dr Schreibers, with other commissioners, were dispatched six days after the occurrence of the phenomenon, with full powers from the Emperor to summon witnesses, and make use of all other means for ascertaining the truth of the fact alleged, and the circumstances which attended it. The result of the investigation was such as must have removed all doubts, if any had been entertained, of these substances having actually fallen from the atmosphere. The phenomenon had been witnessed by hundreds as they were going to church in the morning. A cloud had been observed, a loud crashing noise was heard, and the substances fell within a few yards of several individuals; were picked up by many while still warm; and were heard by others to fall with a hissing noise into the water. The commissioners found some still imbedded in the earth, where they had fallen; and were able to trace, with tolerable accuracy, the limits within which the shower, consisting of above a hundred stones of different sizes, had been confined. They were all coated with a semivitrified crust, and on analysis were found to correspond very much with the other specimens of which the origin had been ascribed to the same source. Amongst these atmospheric productions, are two large masses of solid iron, one of which fell at Elbogen, but the date of its descent is not known. This mass is probably above 100 lbs. in weight. It is so perfectly solid and pure, that trinkets, and a garden knife for the Emperor, have been cut from it. The other mass is nearly of equal size, and fell at Agram, at 6 o'clock, May 26, 1751; it has many indentations on its surface, and seems

to have undergone a partial fusion. Dr Schreibers has likewise a private collection of these meteoric productions, containing specimens of stones which have fallen in 24 different places, all of which he has analysed, and the results are carefully arranged with the original specimens. He entertained at one time the intention of publishing a work upon this subject, and has brought together a large stock of materials; has gathered the histories of above 200 meteoric explosions, and has a set of beautiful drawings taken from the specimens in the Imperial collection; but the disturbances which have convulsed the continent, broke in upon his pursuit, and he has not hitherto resumed it.

With the naturalists of Vienna must be ranked Mr Baumgarten, at present occupied in a work upon the botanical productions of Transylvania; and the Abbé Mazzuola, whose collection of butterflies is almost unique, and boasts of some most rare varieties. The present Archbishop of Vienna is also an ardent naturalist. Indeed, the sciences connected with natural history are those which are most cultivated in this city.

Mathematics and Astronomy are not, however, neglected, and have been successfully pursued by several individuals, of whom the Professor Burke, and the Abbé Treisnecker, director of the Astronomical Observatory, are the most distinguished.

Amongst the practising physicians, there are some highly worthy of being noticed, though it is somewhat singular, that of the most celebrated, scarcely any one is an Austrian by birth. Neither Doctors Frank, De Carro, Malfatti, Capellini, nor Hildenbrand, are Austrians; and after enumerating these, very few remain whose names will be in the least familiar to a stranger. Of all I have mentioned, Dr Frank is best known to the world, by his numerous and learned writings. Few men have spent their lives in more active labours of usefulness.

He was first known as professor of medical jurisprudence at Pavia. He then came to Vienna, and filled the chair of clinical medicine in the University for twenty years. Removing to Wilna with his son, he there established another course of clinical lectures. Thence he was called to St Petersburg, where, during a residence of two years, he introduced clinical lectures, but not finding the climate agree with him, he returned to Vienna. His wish was to avoid practice, and to devote himself to his literary pursuits; but, notwithstanding this, he has much practice forced upon him as a consulting physician. The remainder of his time is occupied in completing the works he has begun, particularly his elaborate treatise upon medical jurisprudence. He is a man of the most instructive and pleasing conversation, with great knowledge both of books and men, and is most universally respected. He is now above seventy years of age, is perfectly firm and upright, and in all his faculties and dispositions, possesses the force and energy of youth, tempered by the mildness of advancing years.

Dr De Carro likewise does much honour to Vienna, and his important exertions in the propagation of that greatest discovery of the age, the vaccine inoculation, will ever entitle him to the sincere thanks of his fellow-creatures. To him the Continent of Asia, as well as that of Europe, is indebted for the first introduction of this great blessing, and I shall make no scruple of here inserting a short account of his success, nearly in the words of a biographical memoir of De Carro, which has very lately been published by an Austrian Nobleman.

De Carro, having received his medical education in England, had early opportunities of becoming acquainted with Jenner's important discovery, and, feeling the greatest reliance on his skill and accuracy, resolved to make the first trial upon his

own two sons. "These children, on the 10th of May 1799, "became the first subjects of the cow-pox inoculation upon "the continent of Europe." The success of the experiment was complete, and the children were found to be wholly incapable of receiving the small-pox infection. De Carro now laboured sedulously to propagate the discovery through the whole of Europe. His efforts were attended with the most satisfactory results, and his writings became the standard authorities upon the subject.

This, however, was but a small part of the benefit which he conferred upon mankind; for, after applying himself with unremitting zeal, he at length succeeded in introducing this great discovery into the British possessions, and other remote countries of the East, which he effected by communications of the virus over land. His labours in this most meritorious work have called forth the grateful acknowledgments of the many countries which have benefited by them, and will remain a lasting memorial to his honour. The sciences and the arts are, in many other points, indebted to the zeal of De Carro; but all other glory is eclipsed in the single praise, of having been the worthiest follower in the path marked out by Jenner.

The medical reputation obtained by Professor Beer has not been confined to Germany, but his merit has been acknowledged throughout Europe. He is the third in a succession of teachers on the treatment of diseases of the eye,—a school of which Barth may be called the founder. To him succeeded Prochaska, who still holds the anatomical chair in the university; but Beer, at present, on all affections of the eye, is the teacher and authority of Germany.

The Count Harrack, a man of extensive reading and singular philanthropy, must not be passed unnoticed, and does not the less deserve to be enrolled amongst the worthies of Vienna,

because the purity of his benevolence would never allow him to claim such distinction. This singular man turned his attention to the study of medicine somewhat late in life, for the sole purpose of doing good, and continues to spend his time unceasingly in relieving the miseries of those who are unable to make pecuniary return for the attentions and advice they receive. This species of benevolent exertion is much needed in Vienna, where there are none of the smaller medical charities and dispensaries, which abound in our own country. I several times accompanied this gentleman in his visits to the establishments for the education of the blind, and to a small hospital in a convent of Elizabethines, where the nuns discharge all the offices of care and attendance towards the patients; and it was pleasing to see with what truly parental kindness he conversed and associated with all these objects of his charitable labours. Among the benevolent projects which have occupied the mind of this excellent man, it was his anxious wish to discover means for restraining the frequent extension and ravages of the plague in the Turkish dominions, where, as is well known, religious scruples oppose the adoption of those methods of prevention, which have been found so efficacious in other countries. He accordingly took advantage of the assembly of Congress, to present a memorial on the subject to the various potentates and ministers, hoping that they would, in conjunction, adopt some measures to induce the Porte to consult its own true interest in that respect. I am not, however, aware that the subject ever obtained the attention which perhaps it merited; and the followers of Mahomet still continue to view the approaches of the plague with superstitious resignation.

In the departments of literature and belles lettres, the number of distinguished names is still more confined than in that

of science; and, with the exception of Mr Hammer's colossal strength in Oriental learning;—the general literary knowledge of the archimandrit of the united Greek church, Anthimo Gazi, particularly as respects both ancient and modern Greece;—the historical sketches of Baron Hormayr;—the political disquisitions of the aged Sonnenfels;—the elegant romances and idyls of Madame Pichler;—and the dramatic works of Madame Weissenthurn,—I do not remember to have become acquainted with any thing of very modern date which claimed attention. The writers on theological subjects are numerous, and many treatises, both upon statistics and agriculture, annually appear.

I have already noticed that the business of education in Austria is of a most formidable nature, both for its duration and its formality. It necessarily demands a large apparatus to keep it in activity; and, accordingly, there are throughout the empire, universities, lyceums, district academies, gymnasiums, Latin schools, schools for instructing children in their native tongue, and schools for teaching the elements of religion, all under the immediate superintendence, and in the greater part supported at the expence, of the government. The professors and teachers are not only paid from the public treasury, but the young men are obliged, under pain of exclusion from all the endless offices of state, to attend their instructions. Private schools are, consequently, almost unknown; and there are no traces of that emulation which, in more free countries, ensures to parents a large choice of well instructed masters, each anxious to improve and facilitate education.

Vienna has its full share of these public institutions, for leading young minds into such paths as the Austrian government thinks most fitted for its subjects. There are sixty schools for instructing the poor in reading, writing, and arithmetic, where

they pay at the rate of three florins per year.—One Normal school, professing nearly the same objects, as preparatory for the Gymnasium, at ten florins per year.—Three Gymnasia, in which the studies prescribed by law are, religion, composition, classics, natural history, arithmetic, geography, history, and the elements of mathematics;—And an university provided with forty-five professors, besides extra teachers.

Independent of all these, is the Theresian Academy, established for the sons of Catholic nobility, to which foreigners are admitted. It is superintended by a director, and has twenty-one professors, ten masters of the modern languages, besides several tutors.

There are likewise Imperial medical academies, Imperial military academies, and an Imperial academy for the Oriental languages; and, lastly, the Imperial Polytechnic school, lately established, for instructing tradesmen, and teaching solely, by means of professors and their lectures, all the trades and manufactures, from the sewing of a shoe, or the making of a table, to the construction of a palace, or the fabrication of a silk brocade. Whether this establishment will answer its intended purpose will be seen hereafter. In the meantime, several *learned* men have been enlisted into the service, and, to facilitate the business of instruction, the Museum of Manufactures, before spoken of, has been removed to the new building.

To some of these institutions considerable libraries are attached. That of the university is very extensive, and is said to contain 90,000 volumes. The imperial collection of books, however, far surpasses every other, and consists of 200,000 volumes. These are deposited in a most magnificent hall, to which are attached smaller rooms for manuscripts, and some selections of rare books, illustrative of particular subjects. In one of my visits to this library, I saw the MSS. which were

just brought back from Paris. They had been plundered with an unsparing hand by the French, and, having been stript of their ancient vellum coverings, to render them more portable, were now returned in superb morocco and gold bindings, adorned with the initial of the despoiler's name. A large part of this library is freely open, during several hours of the day, to the use of the citizens, who may read in an apartment, furnished with desks, where the books they require are brought to them by attendants, to whom they are again returned on quitting the room.

Many of the libraries belonging to noble families in Vienna, are likewise extremely valuable.

The Charitable Institutions are, for the most part, monuments of the kindness of government towards its distressed subjects, or of dying devotees towards the salvation of their own souls, rather than the tokens of public philanthropy, or the offspring of the widely extended exertions of Christian charity. They are supported, either directly from the treasury, or by a tax laid upon the inhabitants, for the express purpose of assisting some specific establishment, or by the legacies of individuals. I do not remember one which is maintained exactly on the principle of voluntary contributions.

My attention was naturally drawn, in a peculiar manner, to the magnificent General Hospital, where the medical lectures of Hildenbrand, the instruction of Beer, and the surgical practice of Rust and Kern, afford great attractions to those who are interested in such pursuits.

The Hospital is calculated to receive 2000 patients, but, owing to circumstances connected with its funds, it did not, at the time I was there, contain above 800. The building forms six or seven open squares, and the parts appropriated to the patients are divided into long wards and private chambers.

The patients are distinguished into four separate classes, of which the three first comprise such as are not absolutely destitute, but are able to pay something towards the reestablishment of their health. The highest class pay one florin and fifteen kreutzers per day, for which they are accommodated with separate rooms and nurses. The lowest pay but thirteen kreutzers, and are treated in the same way as those who are admitted gratis. The provisions are supplied by cooks, who contract to furnish a *full diet*, a *half diet*, or a *low diet*, at certain rates; the lowest bidder always being preferred. The greatest precaution is, however, employed to guard against imposition. The different kinds of food are daily tasted by some of the attending physicians, both in the kitchen and in the ward.

The wards are high and well proportioned, heated by stoves, and, as fuel is dear, the windows, which are small, but numerous, and provided with double glass, are never opened during winter. Ventilation is, however, tolerably effected by means of ventilators which open near the ceiling, and as there is much spare room in the hospital, the wards are changed, and undergo a complete purification every six months.

The medical department is numerously filled; four physicians and four surgeons reside in the building, besides others who are attached to it. The clinical wards are greatly superior to the others; they are situated in a separate building in one of the squares of the hospital, where the Professor Hildenbrand, under whose care these patients are placed, resides. This very able physician is the worthy successor of the celebrated Stoll and Frank; he devotes himself very assiduously to the improvement of the students, whose education, in the practical parts of medicine, he superintends. He visits the patients, in company with the pupils, as early as seven o'clock

in the morning, and afterwards delivers a very excellent course of medical lectures in Latin. Professor Beer likewise lectures in this hospital, and gives his clinical instructions in a large ward set apart for diseases of the eye.

For assisting in the medical education of the students, there is a considerable collection of anatomical preparations, both at the hospital and at the university. And at the Josephene medico-chirurgical academy, is to be seen a most splendid collection of anatomical casts in wax, made by the skilful Florentine artists, representing, in the minutest detail, all the parts of the human body, with their anatomical structure fully displayed; and, where requisite, the magnified representation of the parts accompany those of the natural size.

There is yet one more cabinet of this class of preparations, which is particularly worthy of attention. This is the museum of Professor Prochaska, which contains the most minute injections of the vessels of the human body in existence. In fact, the Professor is in possession of a certain art of injecting, which he received from Barth, on conditions of secrecy, and thus, in defiance of all the rules of philosophic liberality, these two enlightened men deny to the world the valuable means they have discovered of increasing our knowledge of the most intricate parts of the human frame. In the meantime, Prochaska is ready, for fifty ducats, to supply to the curious small cabinets, accompanied with a microscope, and containing about seventy microscopic specimens, showing the most minute ramifications of different vessels in the various structures of the body. It appears that this art of subtle injection is the same which Lieberkühn employed before them, and which was lost after his death. It would, indeed, be a blot upon the scientific spirit of the university of Vienna, if a second time such a discovery should be suffered to perish.

Connected with the General Hospital, is an institution for lying-in women, to which persons may be admitted in the most secret manner; and, unseen by any individual, will receive every medical assistance and every care; and, having paid a trifling sum, may quit the house perfectly undiscovered. The child is either taken by the mother, or left, to be placed in the Hospital of Foundlings. The moral tendency of such regulations may be a subject of animadversion; but their humanity is not to be doubted.

The Hospital of Foundlings is, of course, constituted to assist in the same general system, and is open to the reception, not only of children born in the Lying-in Hospital, but of all other children, on paying a certain sum, which never amounts to more than forty-five florins,—is, in certain cases, as low as eight florins,—and, where extreme poverty is fully proved, is altogether dispensed with. The mother, on leaving the child, receives a ticket, by presenting which she may at any time reclaim her offspring, who is otherwise, at a proper age, put to some useful trade or employment. In the case of actual foundlings, the district or parish in which such children are exposed defrays the fee on entrance.

The Asylum for the Insane is a fanciful edifice, and not well contrived. Externally, it appears a large round tower; and, on entering, it is found to consist of a hollow circle, in the centre of which a square building rises, joined to the circle by each of its angles. The circular part contains the patients, and the inclosed building is intended for the residence of the keepers and the surgeon. This building is four stories high, besides the ground floor. Each story is constructed nearly on the same plan;—a passage runs round the inner circumference, into which the cells or chambers open. It contains 300 patients, whose condition is far from being as comfortable

as in many of the establishments for the insane which I have visited.

The Institutions for the education of the Deaf and Dumb, established by the Emperor Joseph, as well as that for the instruction of the Blind, are conducted with much spirit and success, on plans similar to those of Paris and Berlin, but are not very extensive.

The system established for private bathing in Vienna, from its convenience, deserves particular notice; for, besides accommodations at the baths, called the Diana and Emperor's baths, you may, at any time, by sending an order a few hours previously, be furnished from them with a warm bath in your own lodging. This is done by putting the hot water into small casks, formed of staves at least two inches in thickness, which are conveyed to any part of the city or suburbs upon carriages resembling our brewers' drays. A bathing vessel is brought at the same time, and placed in your chamber, and is filled from these casks, of which a sufficient number are left to be added to the rest, to keep up the temperature. When confined in these thick casks, the water will retain considerable heat for twenty-four hours. The apparatus is removed by the same persons who brought it; and the whole charge does not amount to more than eighteenpence or two shillings, according to the distance of your abode from the public baths.

Amongst the many instances of superintending police watching over the public health, must be noticed the regulations by which all burying-grounds are removed beyond the lines, and slaughter-houses prohibited within the walls of the city, and also, that a convenient and secure portion of one of the branches of the Danube is marked out and guarded by proper officers, in order to render it a safe bathing-place for the common people.

Shortly after my arrival at Vienna, I was accidentally made acquainted with another instance of minute attention to the safety of the citizen expressed by the police regulations of this metropolis.

As I walked along the Coertner Strasse one evening, feeling slightly indisposed, I entered a shop, and made civil application for a most harmless remedy. The written prescription was immediately demanded. I had none, but at once wrote it for the druggist's satisfaction. The signature was scrutinized, and the name demanded. A printed register of practitioners authorized by government was examined, and my name of course not found. Neither explanation nor entreaty could avail; and, surrounded by medicines, the only assistance I could procure was a direction to the abode of the nearest authorized prescriber. Fortunately all the venders of drugs in Vienna were not equally conscientious. I obtained my medicine from another, and never again met with a similar refusal. My uncourteous druggist, however, did but strictly obey the well-intentioned injunctions of the government.

If, in some instances, the regulations of government descend a little too minutely into the circumstances which may promote the well-being of the subject;—and if the observer be at moments tempted to smile at the anxiety evinced, lest the impulse, directing to self preservation, should prove too weak, when unassisted by the arm of authorized power; yet, on a survey of the whole conduct of the Austrian government towards its people, the excellence of the ruling heart is always plainly discerned. Nor are the Austrians insensible to the advantages they thus enjoy, but repay it with heartfelt sentiments of affection towards the Emperor, which they never fail to express, even when they murmur at his decrees. If I were to select,

from amongst the eulogies which have been passed on monarchs, the most glowing traits, assisted by the warmest efforts of imagination, I might not perhaps make a deeper impression upon the mind of the reader, than by the simple recital of the fact, that it is the habit of the Austrian ruler, to admit into his presence, and to personal interview, every individual of his realm. One day in every week is devoted to this sacred duty; when the Emperor, with the first dawning of the morning, attends in a private apartment, to receive petitions and complaints, from the mouths even of his poorest subjects. He listens to them freely, and, though he seldom judges finally at the moment, shews his sympathy, and declares his feeling in their behalf.

Before I speak of my departure from Vienna towards Hungary, I would add one topic more to a very miscellaneous chapter, and note down the observations which arose on a visit to Nuremberg, in the Summer of 1815. It presented a scene which, in itself and its associations, was deeply impressive. I had remarked, in Holland and in Prussia, people recovering from political slavery. I had observed, in Saxony, the devastation of war, and the fears of those who trembled under the apprehension of political oppression; but, in Nuremberg, for the first time, I saw the recent effects of political annihilation.

This once free city, formerly so flourishing in its manufactures and trade,—so exulting in its liberties,—so proud of its patrician families,—where the arts of sculpture were fostered,—the art of painting in Germany revived, almost created,—and where all the sciences could find a secure refuge,—is now reduced to a tributary provincial town, under the direction of foreign magistrates;—trade injured, and the arts neglected. As I passed through it, I heard nothing but the melancholy recital of what it had been.

The Bavarian government, from a wish to assimilate this city to the kingdom to which it now belongs; and, if possible, to erase the memory of its ancient condition, has begun by destroying the independence of the rich and illustrious families, from which the government and magistracy were formerly derived. A law has been enacted, prohibiting the exclusive descent of property to the elder branch of the family,—a most effectual safeguard against the accumulation of wealth to individuals, and which, of itself, would strike a decisive blow to the efficiency of Nuremberg as a nursery of the arts.

The consequence of these combined causes has already been, that the greater part of the valuable collections of paintings and antiquities have been dispersed; and the last remaining library, and the fine and celebrated collections of Paul de Praun, which, for nearly two centuries, have been the boast of Nuremberg, are now offered for sale. In each ancient mansion, the folding doors are closed,—the court-yard is overgrown with grass,—the chambers have lost their ornaments,—and our conductors seemed to fear lest the naked walls should echo too loudly, what they recounted to us as the cause of all this desolation.

I can truly say, that, during the few days I spent in Nuremberg, I never heard a contented word, nor did I ever hear a complaint uttered with an open voice; for persons, who would each relate facts when alone with me, would utter but distant insinuations when they were together, so much did suspicion and fear occupy their minds.

The Bavarian government, or its authorized minister, has, in one or two instances, copied the example which has been given so frequently of late, of attempting to complete the subjugation, and insure the obedience of the people, by taking away striking monuments, or destroying certain insignia, upon

which they have been accustomed to look with admiration, and point out as objects of pride.

Thus, in Nuremberg, the Bavarians have laid their sacrilegious hands upon various public ornaments; and what has particularly excited disgust, is the removal of a magnificent work in cast metal, which used to adorn the town-hall, and which was looked upon with peculiar respect. We were conducted in order to have the situation pointed out, which this admired piece of art had occupied, but the doors of the great room were shut against us. We knocked in vain, and were only answered by the imprecations of the Russian soldiers, who, on their march towards the frontiers of France, had been put in possession of the useless apartment.

But let political events pursue their course,—let Nuremberg fall much lower in importance than she yet has fallen,—her name will not be forgotten. So long as the history of the arts remains an object of interest, the birth place of Albert Durer, his constant residence, and the scene of his last days, will be identified with Nuremberg; and the last turret which marks the situation of this once powerful and free city, will serve as a monument to the father of the arts, whose industry and whose genius were such, that it is to be doubted whether, in diversity of subject, in correctness of drawing, or in beauty of finish, he has yet ever been surpassed; and who, in the sister arts of engraving and sculpture, succeeded to a degree which would have afforded sufficient ground for the warmest praise, had he not been rendered still more celebrated by his painting. The works of German art recall him to our minds at every step,—and the feelings which attend the extinguished glory of Nuremberg, remind us, by no unnatural connection, of the death of Albert Durer, and the epitaph inscribed over his remains. Once associated in their glory,—the man and his

ancient home now rest together in their decay;—and the traveller would be ungrateful not to scatter such flowers over each as he may collect, although the gathering be hasty and the offering rude.

The epitaph on Albert Durer might furnish an inscription for his native place,—" Vixit Germaniæ decus."

ME . AL . DU
QUICQUID . ALBERTI . DURERI . MORTALE . FUIT
SUB . HOC . CONDITUR . TUMULO
EMIGRAVIT . VIII . IDUS . APRILIS
MDXXVIII

VIXIT . GERMANIÆ . DECUS
ALBERTUS . DURERUS
ARTIUM . LUMEN . SOL . ARTIFICUM
URBIS . PATRIÆ . NOR . ORNAMENTUM
PICTOR . CHALCOGRAPHUS . SCULPTOR
SINE . EXEMPLO . QUIA . OMNISCIUS
DIGNUS . INVENTUS . EXTERIS
QUEM . IMITANDUM . CENSERENT
MAGNES . MAGNATUM . COS . INGENIORUM
POST . SESQUISECULI . REQUIEM
QUIA . PAREM . NON . HABUIT
SOLUS . HEIC . CUBARE . JUBETUR
TU . FLORES . SPARGE . VIATOR
A . R . S . MDCLXXXI
OPT . MER . F . CUR
I . D E . S

CHAPTER III.

Leave Vienna.—Pressburg.—Appearance of Country and Peasants.—Tyrnau.—Freystadt.—Neutra.—Urmeny, the residence of Graf Hunyadi.—Introduction of Horse-racing.—Breeding stud.—Cyganis.—Lands possessed by Nobles alone.—State of Peasants, and the services required of them.—Interior of a Peasant's habitation.

During my residence in Vienna, I was fortunate enough to become acquainted with some of the Hungarian nobility, through whose kindness I was furnished with many valuable letters, which promised to afford me much facility in passing through their country, and in gaining information upon such subjects as should appear to me most interesting. Provided with these introductions, I embraced the earliest days of spring, and, leaving

Vienna, in March 1815, in company with a friend who wished to visit Pressburg, took the road on the right bank of the Danube. The country through which we first passed was flat, open, and uninteresting, the river, much intersected by islands covered with alders and willows, showing itself at intervals. Great part of the land is not cultivated, and very little of it is inclosed.

The villages afforded as little interest as the intervening country. At the post-houses we found that horses had been bespoken for the Palatine, who was expected on his way from Ofen, and, on this account, horse patroles were stationed at certain distances along the road.

To the right, before entering Haimburg, are the remains of a Roman triumphal arch, the lower parts of which are built of stone, and the upper parts, as well as the arch, of the thin bricks so frequently found in these remains of antiquity. The cement is very strong; and a large mass of brick-work, which had fallen from the top, still adheres firmly together. We examined it attentively, but could not discover the remains of any inscription. This archway has been described and figured by Dr Brown, who wrote in 1673; and since that period it has suffered much less dilapidation than might be expected. The traces, however, of the ancient town of Carnuntum, in which it is supposed to have been erected, are now become very faint; but, immediately surrounding the arch, the earth is thrown into confused heaps, bearing at present the appearance rather of a depository of the dead, than of the remains of a splendid city.

The day was too far advanced when we arrived at Haimburg to cross the Danube before night; and, there being no inn at the river on this side, we determined to remain where we were,

and seated ourselves in the public room, where Teniers might have found some excellent subjects for his pencil.

The company had divided itself into knots. The party with whom we more immediately connected ourselves, consisted of two well-informed merchants, just come from the confines of Turkey. Their knowledge of languages might well surprise an Englishman; for they spoke fluently no less than seven, of which they wrote five with tolerable correctness. Such accomplishments are, however, by no means unusual in the country we were just entering; for the mixture of nations and languages in Hungary is so great, that it is nearly impossible to live there, without some knowledge of Latin, German, and Sclavonian, or, according to the district in which you have occasion to reside, Hungarian or Bosnian or Walachian.

Early on the following morning we proceeded to Pressburg, which we reached, after crossing the Danube in a large boat; the flying bridges, which are always removed during the winter on account of the ice, not being yet reestablished.

In Pressburg, a city with 22,000 inhabitants, declared by Ferdinand, in 1536, the capital of Hungary,—the place where the kings were crowned, and the diets were held,—there was now little to detain us. The castle, which was some years ago used as a barrack, was accidentally burned down. The walls still form a square pile with a tower at each angle; but it is more remarkable for its situation than its structure. It is placed on a hill of moderate elevation, which may be considered as the commencement of the Carpathian chain, overlooking a vast plain, through which the Danube rolls; and on the north-west of which alone the horizon is broken for about one-third of its extent by distant mountains.

The town itself is insignificant; many of the streets are steep and narrow,—the good houses but few,—and the shops, which

are for the most part supplied with goods from Vienna, bear a poor and retail character. We visited the principal church, dedicated to St Martin the martyr. It is a very ancient Gothic edifice, said indeed to have been built in 1090. There is an excellent equestrian figure of the tutelary saint, placed over the altar. It is cast in metal, after a mould by the celebrated Donner.

Pressburg has likewise its theatre; and in the middle of the town is an open space, planted with young trees, as a public walk. The manufactures are of little importance. They are chiefly oil, snuff, woollen goods, and before the late war it had some share in the manufacture of silk.

A public school for boys of the Catholic religion is supported by government; besides which we here find one of the largest Lutheran establishments for education in Hungary. In the suburbs, which are extensive, for the ancient walls of the city did not include above 400 houses, are seen a few large residences, with gardens belonging to Hungarian nobles.

As I inquired from the innkeeper respecting the best means by which I might arrive at the towns of Schemnitz and Kremnitz, without a carriage of my own, he represented to me forcibly the inconvenience to which I should be subjected, by depending upon the carriages provided at the post stations; and a young man joining in our conversation, recommended me to stay till the following day, when he himself intended to go in that direction, taking advantage of a returning silver waggon which had been carrying coin to Vienna. The prospect of this only public conveyance, was but little alluring; and, as my friend offered to accompany me the first stage, I determined to proceed with him, and trust afterwards to the means afforded at the different stations. We accordingly set forwards. There was no active bustle in the

streets,—no throng of people crowding to and fro,—and scarcely had we left the town, when all traces of human habitations ceased,—and the flat country assumed an open and neglected aspect. The chief objects which enlivened the scene, were filthy peasants, seated on the front of their light waggons, loaded with fire-wood, who, flourishing their long whips, kept their four ponies in a trot, whilst they directed their course with a single rein of cord. The road was very bad, and particularly when we passed a village, the wheels sunk to their naves in mud.

When we arrived at Cseklesz, the first stage after leaving Pressburg, and the residence of Graf Esterhazy, my companion returned to Vienna; placing myself, therefore, with my portmanteau and a few books in a small post calash, I proceeded towards Sarfö.

The road improved; the peasants were employed in ploughing the land, and my driver cheered the way by a Sclavonian song. But let no one be induced, by these expressions, to figure to his imagination a scene of rural delight. The plain is unenlivened by trees, unintersected by hedges, and thinly inhabited by human beings;—a waste of arable land, badly cultivated, and yielding imperfect crops to proprietors who are scarcely conscious of the extent of territory they possess. It is for some branch of the families of Esterhazy or Palfy, known to them only by name, that the Sclavonian peasants who inhabit these regions are employed. Their appearance bespeaks no fostering care from the superior,—no independent respect, yielded with free satisfaction from the inferior. It is easy to perceive, that all stimulus to invention, all incitement to extraordinary exertion, is wanting. No one peasant has proceeded in the arts of life and civilization a step farther than his neighbour. When you have seen one you have seen all.

From the same little hat, covered with oil, falls the same matted long black hair, negligently plaited or tied in knots; and over the same dirty jacket and trowsers, is wrapped on each a cloak of coarse woollen cloth, or sheep-skin still retaining its wool. Whether it be winter or summer, week-day or Sabbath, the Sclavonian of this district never lays aside his cloak, or is seen but in heavy boots. Their instruments of agriculture are throughout the same, and in all their habitations is observed a perfect uniformity of design. A wide muddy road separates two rows of cottages, which constitute a village. From amongst them there is no possibility of selecting the best or the worst; they are absolutely uniform. In some villages the cottages present their ends; in others, their sides to the road; but there is seldom this variety in the same village. The interior of the cottage is in general divided into three small rooms on the ground floor, and a little space in the roof destined for lumber. The roof is commonly covered with a very thick thatch, the walls are white washed, and pierced towards the road by two small windows. The cottages are usually placed a few yards distant from each other. The intervening space defended by a rail and gate, or a hedge of wicker-work towards the road, forms the farm-yard, which runs back some way, and contains a shed or out-house for the cattle. Such is the outward appearance of the peasant and his habitation. Of his domestic economy, more may be said hereafter.

One of the villages through which we passed contained about two hundred families of peasants. It is of the largest size, the property, I believe, of Prince Esterhazy, who is said to possess above twenty-five villages in this district.

As I passed through this wild and open country, and looked around on all the objects which formed its characteristic features, I observed a triangular stone edifice, with a pillar

rising from each corner, which I was informed was intended, by the addition of beams, to form a triple gallows. I was, consequently, led to inquire into the frequency of its use, and was gratified to find, that, in fact, it was there rather as a warning, than an instrument of punishment, being assured by a man advanced in years that he did not remember a single execution.

At Sarfö, which is merely a village, I exchanged my little covered calash for a very inferior conveyance, a small cart, without any cover or protection, hung on iron bars instead of springs or leathers. It soon broke down, but was quickly repaired. The country still presented a prodigious extent of land, moderately cultivated; and, as the evening gradually closed, the Carpathian Mountains formed a fine outline towards the setting sun, whilst the peasants, who were returning home with their ploughs and oxen, added to the beauty of the scene.

It was eight o'clock when I arrived at Tyrnau, about fourteen English miles distant from Sarfö. This is a royal free town of considerable size, where some coarse cloth is manufactured, and its markets are largely attended. Until the year 1777, this town had to boast of the national university, which at that period was removed by Maria Theresa to Ofen. A seminary for young clergy, and other schools, are still maintained at Tyrnau; and the archbishop's palace, some handsome churches, and the convents of several religious orders which once flourished in this town, stamp it with a character of some importance. I was now just in time to become one of a party at the supper-table, where the post-master, and a nobleman whose mustaches and whiskers had been trained almost to meet, formed the most conspicuous guests, keeping up a rapid conversation in Latin, in which the whole company at times joined.

On the following day I proceeded through a district, which, at the commencement, was flat, but soon after became varied with gentle inequalities, affording a swelling outline, and scattered over thinly with stunted trees.

In this country, where there are no farming tenants, the great proprietors have the establishments necessary for collecting the crops distributed on different parts of their extensive territories. I saw more than one of these during the morning's ride, at great distances from each other. As we approached Freystadt, we perceived, in a plain to the left, the regular fortification of Leopoldstadt, so called after Leopold the First. It is situated on the river Waag. The building of this fortress was rendered necessary, by the twenty years' truce concluded in 1664, when Neuhaüsel was to remain in the hands of the Turks. Brown saw it, in 1669, still in progress. Its fortifications are tolerably entire, and it is at present employed only as a station for invalids.

The town of Freystadt is well situated, on a finely rising ground. Graf Erdödi is the proprietor of the whole, and of a large extent of surrounding country. His residence might, from its situation, form a striking object, were it not unfortunately, like many of the large mansions of the Hungarian nobility, built with little attention to elegance or taste.

After crossing the Waag, which is here a rapid river, by a bridge of timber, the road winds through a wood, and ascends gently towards Freystadt. It was market-day in this little town,—the streets were thronged with peasants, and the light waggons of the country, each drawn by two oxen or small horses abreast.

The costume of the men has been already described, except that, in addition to the usual sheep's skin cloak, many had two tails hanging from the collar down their backs, generally made

of black lamb's skin, or variegated in some rude pattern of black and white. The women wore short pelisses of blue cloth, lined, and bordered with fur or wool, and white handkerchiefs closely bound about their heads. On a bank of grass immediately on the skirts of the town, a numerous body of peasantry was collected, having horses and cattle of various kinds for sale. It was a curious sight, and whether the negligence of the peasant were more marked in the appearance of himself or his cattle, was not easy to determine. Nature had done much in forming a strong race of men, however deficient the cattle may be in beauty or size. A more pitiable collection of horses could scarcely be seen; and the meagre appearance of the horned cattle too plainly indicated the insufficiency of the pastures on which they had been fed. Many miserable beggars, with groups of mingled Jews and Gypsies, served to complete this motley assemblage.

The country, on leaving Freystadt, became a little varied, and the quantity of wood rather increased; the road continued very bad till we approached Neutra.

This town is finely situated on two elevations, on one of which stands the bishop's palace, with the cathedral,—on the other a public school; and at no great distance behind the town is a range of hills, beautifully covered with forest trees. There are many good houses, and a large building for transacting the business of the comitatus. It happened to be the period of its assembling; and while the post-master awaited the return of his horses from the labour of the field, I entered an inn which could boast, indeed, of little comfort, but a dirty cloth was spread upon the table to invite the visitors to eat. As I sat here, several of the inferior nobility, who had come to attend the assembly, entered. Their conversation was in general too obscure, either from the language or the subject, to afford

Sketched by R.B

Engraved by H.Hobson

PETRA.

me much interest; but a travelling lecturer on philosophy, who joined the party, enlivened it by a bombastic affectation of learning, which seemed to produce no small effect upon some of his hearers, and, certainly, secured him additional auditors for the evening.

After more than two hours delay, I procured horses late in the afternoon to carry me to Urmeny, the seat of Graf Hunyadi, to whom I had letters of introduction. Urmeny lies entirely out of the post-road; but our lonely track passed through a fine open valley, the sides of which were partially covered with wood: the river Neutra wound along the bottom. The newly springing corn clothed the arable land with delightful verdure, and on turning round, and looking towards Neutra, the ridge of mountains, running to the north and east, presented a most magnificent view. In a short time every trace of road ceased. The few peasants whom we met from time to time were wild and uncultivated in appearance, yet, as in all countries where there are few travellers, and more particularly where the relation between peasant and lord is such as in Hungary, they never forgot to make submissive bows to the carriage. At length passing over a low ridge we arrived at the village of Urmeny. This extends itself over the opposite rising bank, on the summit of which is seen the residence of Graf Hunyadi, which, together with the church, overlooks all the other buildings. My driver was willing to take me at once to the Château, but, as it was already dark, I thought it might be better to defer presenting myself till the following morning. My scruples were, however, speedily removed, for I found that, being out of the post-road, Urmeny afforded the traveller no public accommodation. Under these circumstances, I went immediately to the castle, where I learned that the Graf was absent,

though hourly expected. It fortunately happened that I was provided with a letter for Mr Appell, who, under the title of Director, has complete powers, during the absence of the Graf, to discharge all the duties of hospitality. Mr Appell inhabits a handsome modern house in the garden, within a short distance of the castle, where he received me with the most unaffected cordiality. He lamented the absence of the Graf, and immediately gave orders to the Ober Hof-meister, who adds various functions to those of maitre d'hotel, to prepare a chamber in the castle for a stranger. Thither my luggage was quickly conveyed, and all my apologies as speedily silenced by my hospitable landlord, who assured me that, when better acquainted with the customs of Hungary, I should know they were quite unnecessary.

I found the Director most closely intent upon the agricultural pursuits over which he presides, and happily uniting great zeal with steady and intelligent exertion. We were soon engaged in conversation upon the economy of the farm; and I was astonished at the exertions the Graf is making to improve every thing connected with the breeding of horses, sheep, and cattle. Whilst we were employed in examining and comparing the different registers and accounts, which are regularly kept, relative to the breed and progress of each kind of farming-stock, the family physician entered. He is a man of talents, living in a neighbouring house; and finding in the castle the only recompence and consolation for the virtual banishment in which he passes his time. We were shortly summoned to supper. It was a patriarchal meal. A large round table, comfortably served in the manner of the country, was surrounded by a numerous family of the Director's children. Their mother was dead; but a female relation, in some degree, supplied her place. A young artist, engaged to live in the

house, for the double purpose of painting the portraits of the Graf's favourite horses, and instructing the Director's children, was likewise of the party. These, with the physician and myself, formed the company. The supper was simple and plentiful; and, amongst other things, we found excellent cheese, the produce of an estate of the Graf's, near the Balaton Lake, which had many of the best qualities of Stilton; wine, not unlike claret, from another of his estates; and a very fine fish called Fogas *(Perca Lucioperca?)*, taken in the Balaton. After a cheerful repast, I retired to my room; and at seven the following morning took coffee, according to appointment, with the Director.

Lying on the table, with other books, was Tattersall's Racing Kalendar, which led to the production of the Racing Kalendar of Hunyadi. The Graf has been taking great pains with his breed of horses; and, with a view of ascertaining the progress which he makes, and, at the same time, through a desire of exciting the country to exertion, has instituted races on the English model. This practice, which has secured to Great Britain the finest horses in the world, seems likely to be attended with the greatest benefits to the Hungarian breed. At that time the Graf's kalendar contained the account of two races only, both of which occurred during the preceding year; before which period, his project of breeding was too little matured to furnish him with proper horses. Though the turf is at present engrossed by his own racers, other proprietors are beginning to understand the object and perceive the advantages of the plan.

As it may be curious and interesting to see the record of the first attempt to establish in Hungary this English practice, I insert a translation of the first page of the Hunyadi kalendar.

This race took place May 22d 1814, between three mares.

Name of the Mare.	*Colour and Marks.*	*Size.*	*Age.*	*Name of the*		*Name of the Rider.*	*With what Weight.*
				Father.	*Mother.*		
Victoria.	Light Brown.	15 Han. $\frac{1}{2}$ Inch.	3 Years.	Montedoro.	Roxalana.	Johan Petzucha.	$78\frac{3}{4}$ Pfund.
Capria.	Chesnut.	14 Han. $3\frac{1}{2}$ Inch.	3	Yoscanello.	Capria.	Johan Hofchuth.	$72\frac{3}{4}$ Pfund.
Cocoa.	Iron Grey.	14 Han. $3\frac{1}{2}$ Inch.	3	Porla, from Transylvania.	Viliam, Transylvania.	Johan Kudrij.	$72\frac{3}{4}$ Pfund.

" In this case Victoria and Capria ran the length of one " English mile, or 849 Vienna klafters, in two minutes and " eleven seconds. But Cocoa remained the length of six horses " behind.

" That the above described horses of this size and age, and " carrying this weight, did really accomplish the distance in " the time stated, we testify by our names."

(Here follows a long list of signatures of noblemen and others who were present.)

Graf Hunyadi has since continued, and even increased, his exertions in pursuit of this important object. In the spring of 1816 he ran thirteen three year old mares of his own breeding, before an assemblage of several thousand persons. In this case the whole were divided into three allotments, each forming a separate race. In the first, Justina ran the length of the course, which is $1082\frac{1}{2}$ Vienna klafters, in three minutes and forty-two seconds. In the next, Ariosa did the same in two minutes and fifty-eight seconds; and, in the third, Lodoiska in two minutes and fifty-four seconds. Then, after resting for an hour, the three successful mares ran against each other, and Lodoiska went over the course in three minutes and three seconds.

As the Graf wishes, not only to draw the attention of the landholders to the breeding of horses, but also to infuse into his peasantry a spirit of improvement in this particular, he has appointed a day, on which their horses alone run, and gives rewards to the successful competitors.

Portraits of some of the Graf's horses were shewn me. They were executed with great correctness and skill, by the artist whom I had met at dinner. We next proceeded to the stables, which are placed near the house, that they may be always under the eye of the Graf himself. They are a fine range, containing from thirty to forty horses. The flooring is of wood, and the litter being removed during the day, the horses stand on the boards. A general superintendant is constantly in the stables, and each groom has not more than two or three horses under his separate care. Some one of the grooms must always be present, and a mark hung over the stalls of him to whose turn it falls, reminds him of his duty. The horses we here saw were various crosses of the Arabian and Transylvanian. Several were led out to shew their forms and paces, which in general were extremely good.

We now mounted a light carriage of the Director's, termed a *drosky*, and drove towards Hetmeny, a farm belonging to the Graf at the distance of a few miles, where he keeps his breeding stud. It was a delightful morning, and the way led us over a perfect plain, the greater part of which was uninclosed, affording a fine sweet grass, and dry pasturage to the sheep. We had here an opportunity of comparing the fine-woolled flocks of Graf Hunyadi, with the unimproved sheep of the country. The latter are larger in the carcase, but the inferiority in the quality of their fleece is extremely striking.

We passed over part of an estate belonging to one of the greatest proprietors in Hungary. It was one of those many

neglected territories, which, left to the care of a steward, are probably never seen by the owner; and as there are but few peasants attached to it, it is worked by those who live on other estates, at the distance of some days' journey. This duty they are compelled to discharge at the will of their Lord, being obliged to leave their homes, with their cattle and ploughs, and take up a temporary residence in some barn or stable on the estate to which they are removed.

We passed a village built in the usual manner, and, crossing a ferry, arrived on the farm of Hetmeny. We had not proceeded many steps before the Director encountered some of the inferior officers, with whom he began a conversation on farming affairs in Latin. The effect was singular; but I was by this time growing accustomed to it.

At Hetmeny I found all the arrangements made with attention to utility, and not to shew. Large pens for breeding mares;—airy and open stables furnished with mangers, not divided into stalls, for feeding the young horses, which are afterwards driven out into the inclosures appropriated for them, according to their different classes and ages;—a long stable, with stalls for horses more advanced, amongst which were those which had been tried in the races of the last year;—and small open stables, each devoted to one of the stallions on which the Graf depends for the improvement of his breed. One stallion only of the old breed of the estate is preserved, strong, and of a brown colour.

Whilst waiting for dinner at the house of the Inspector, I saw the commencement of a most particular and laborious register, in which the qualities of each horse, in both body and disposition, were strictly detailed, with a view to obtain such an intimate knowledge of the animals as may ensure a continual improvement in the breed. After dinner, we visited the race-

horses, which were now in their first week of training for the expected competition.

Highly gratified with all I had seen, I returned with my conductor to the carriage, and we drove to a village, where the Graf has one of his sheepfolds. The generality of the inhabitants were Sclavonian; but, as occurs in almost all the villages in this part of the country, there are persons of other nations, more particularly Gypsies, a race of people here called Cyganis. These people are spread through all Hungary, are distributed in every hamlet, but retain all the peculiarities which constitute a separate tribe. Though they become truly the fixed inhabitants of the villages where they live, they seldom marry out of their own body, and rarely employ themselves in regular works of agriculture.

They are considered inferior even to the peasants, and assume the occupations of smiths or carpenters, and carriers of messages and letters. In harvest, and other seasons when labour presses, they are called upon to assist in the fields; and any little irregular work is confided to the Cyganis. Their houses, which are always small and poor in appearance, are commonly situated on the outskirts of the village, and, if possible, in the neighbourhood of some thicket or rough land. In their persons they are dirty, and scantily clothed. They are easily to be distinguished by the round form of the face, the dark swarthy complexion, small curved nose, and black eyes. In short, those who have seen Gypsies in England will immediately recognize the same tribe of people in the Cyganis of Hungary. In some few instances, however, these people have been known to raise themselves by industry and care to a situation higher than the common peasant. They become dealers in horses and tobacco, and frequent the fairs and markets. They are generally musical, and some are in the habit

of wandering about amongst the gentry, and professionally frequenting weddings or feasts.

Upon the whole, they are not much discountenanced, and, from their readiness to employ themselves in irregular occupations, are often found very useful. Attempts have frequently been made to bring them to habits of regular industry, but in vain. Content with very little, they seem to value the species of independence they possess, though enjoyed at the expence of all which the more civilized have been taught to consider the comforts of life.

The majority, however, of the inhabitants of this village were peasants, or, as they are called, Bauers. As I shall have frequent occasion to speak of this class, it may be well to give here a slight sketch of their situation, and the relation in which they stand to their Lord; leaving the outline to be filled up and illustrated as circumstances arise in the progress of my journal.

The manner in which land is possessed and distributed in this country is very singular. No man can possess lands who is not a noble of Hungary. But, as all the family of a nobleman are also noble, it is supposed, that, in every twenty-one individuals in the nation, one is of this class. The lands descend either entire and undivided to the eldest son, or are equally divided amongst the sons, or, in some cases, amongst the sons and daughters; so that many of the nobles become, by these divisions, extremely poor, and are often obliged to discharge all the duties of the meanest peasant. If any of these nobles wish to sell an estate to a stranger, however high in rank, even to a noble of the Austrian empire, application must first be made to the surrounding proprietors, to learn whether they wish to purchase at the stipulated price; if they decline, the stranger may purchase it for a period of thirty years; at the

end of which time, any branch of the family which sold it, however distantly related, may oblige the stranger to surrender his bargain. This goes so far, that, in many cases, though the purchaser be an Hungarian noble, the family of the former possessor can reclaim it after thirty years, on payment of the original price, together with expences incurred in the buildings and improvements which have been made during that period. The litigation, ill-will, and evils of every kind to which such laws give rise, are beyond calculation.

The peasants on these estates were formerly bound to perform indefinite services, on account of supposed grants and privileges, likewise little understood. Maria Theresa put the whole under certain regulations, which left less arbitrary power in the hands of the Lord. She fixed the quantity of land upon each estate, which was to remain irrevocably in the possession of the peasantry, giving to each peasant his portion, called a *session*, and defining the services which should be required of him by his Lord in return. The only points determined, however, were, first, the whole quantity of land assigned to the peasants; secondly, the relation between the quantity of land and the quantity of labour the Lord should require for it. The individual peasants are not fixed to the soil, but may always be dismissed when the superior finds cause; nor is it of necessity that the son succeeds to his father, though usually the case. The peasant has no absolute claim to a whole session;—if the Lord please he may give but half a session, or a third; but, in this case, he cannot require more than one-half or one-third of the labour. The quantity of land allotted to a whole session is fixed for each *comitatus* or county. In the county of Neutra, where Urmeny is situated, it varies, according to the quality of the soil, from twenty to thirty joch, each equal to 1.46 acres, or nearly $1\frac{1}{2}$ English statute acre; and of these sixteen or twenty

must be arable; the rest meadow. The services required of the father of the family, for the whole session, are one hundred and four days of labour during the year, if he work without cattle, or fifty-two days if he bring two horses or oxen, or four, if necessary, with ploughs and carts. In this work he may either employ himself, or, if he prefer and can afford it, may send a servant. Besides this, he must give four fowls and twelve eggs, and one pfund and a half of butter; and every thirty peasants must give one calf yearly. He must also pay a florin for his house,—must cut and bring home a klafter of wood,—must spin in his family six pfund of wool or hemp, provided by the landlord,—and, among four peasants, the proprietor claims what is called a long journey, that is, they must transport twenty centners, each one hundred French pounds weight, the distance of two days' journey out and home; and, besides all this, they must pay one-tenth of all their products to the church, and one-ninth to the Lord.

Such are the services owed by the peasant, and happy would he be were he subject to no other claims. Unfortunately, however, the peasant of Hungary has scarcely any political rights, and is considered by the government, much more than by the landlord, in the light of a slave. By an unlimited extension of the aristocratical privilege, the noble is free from every burthen, and the whole is accumulated upon the peasant. The noble pays no tribute, and goes freely through the country, subject to neither tolls nor duties; but the peasant is subject to pay tribute, and although there may be some nominal restrictions to the services due from him to government, it can safely be said, that there is no limit, in point of fact, to the services which he is compelled to perform. Whatever public work is to be executed,—not only when a road is to be repaired, but when new roads are to be made, or bridges

built,—the county meeting gives the order, and the peasant dares not refuse to execute it. All soldiers passing through the country are quartered exclusively upon the peasantry. They must provide them, without recompence, with bread, and furnish their horses with corn, and whenever called upon, by an order termed a "*forespann order*," they must provide the person bringing it with horses and means of conveyance. Such an order is always employed by the officers of government; and whoever can in any way plead public business as the cause of his journey, takes care to provide himself with it. In all levies of soldiers the whole falls upon the peasant, and the choice is left to the arbitrary discretion of the Lord and his servants.

Taking a general view of the situation of the peasant, we may be satisfied, that it is not only in appearance, but in reality, oppressive. The appearance of oppression constantly imposing on the sufferer a consciousness of his humiliation, is of itself an evil hard to bear; but in the present case there is more than apparent hardship; for, even supposing that the return made to the Hungarian peasant for his labour by his Lord were an ample recompence, still the unlimited demands of service from government would prevent his deriving advantage from it. It is certain that the whole system is bad. Neither the Lord nor the peasant is satisfied. The benefit derived by the latter is by no means proportionate to the sacrifice which the landlord is called upon to make. The quantity of land appropriated to the peasant is enormous, and still he always labours unwillingly, and of course ineffectually, under an idea that he works from compulsion, and not for pay. In order to do all the farming work upon a given estate by the peasants, it is no wild assertion, that nearly one-half of the land capable of cultivation is portioned out amongst the labourers.

Owing to local circumstances, however, the proportion between the estate and peasants belonging to it varies very much. When the Empress Maria Theresa made the distribution, she was guided, in a great degree, by the actual number then existing on each estate, to all of whom she gave lands, apparently without considering how the change would apply to individual cases. And, besides this original inequality, subsequent divisions of estates, and the cultivation of lands, at that time wholly neglected, have rendered the disproportion, in some cases, glaringly absurd. Thus, I have heard of estates, of which every acre was occupied by the peasants, the landlord receiving nothing but the tenths and other casual services from them, unless he had occasion to transport them to labour on some other of his estates. On other properties, again, there are no peasants,—and this appears to be the state of things most desirable to the proprietor,—so much so, that, even where peasants have been upon an estate, instances have come to my knowledge, in which the Lord has almost neglected to demand their services, finding his labour better performed by hired servants.

But, if the landlord have reason to be little satisfied, still less can the peasant be supposed to rejoice in his situation. It can never be well, to make the great and actually necessary part of society,—the labouring class,—dependant on the chances of a good or bad harvest for its existence. A man of capital can bear, for a year or two years, the failure of his crops; but, let a cold east wind blow for one night,—let a hail storm descend,—or let a river overflow its banks,—and the peasant, who has nothing but his field, starves or becomes a burthen to his Lord. Of this I have seen actual proof, not only in the wine districts of Hungary, in which the uncertainty of the crop is extreme, but in some of its richest plains, where I have known

the peasantry, full three months before gathering in, humbly supplicating the landlords to advance them corn on the faith of the coming harvest. These are evils always liable to occur, supposing the peasant were allowed to cultivate his lands without interruption. But is this the case? The Lord can legally claim only one hundred and four days' labour from each in the year; yet who can restrain him if he demand more? There are a multiplicity of pretexts under which he can make such demands, and be supported in them. The administration of justice is, in a great degree, vested in his own hands. There are many little faults for which a peasant becomes liable to be punished with blows and fines, but which he is often permitted to commute for labour. In fact, these things happen so frequently, and other extorted days of labour, which the peasant fears to refuse, occur so often, that I remember, when in conversation with a very intelligent Director, I was estimating the labour of each peasant at 104 days,—he immediately corrected me, and said I might double it. If, however, the Lord, or his head servants, have too much feeling of propriety to transgress against the strictness of the law, they can at any time call upon the peasants to serve them for pay; and that, not at the usual wages of a servant, but about one-third as much, according to an assessed rate of labour. Add to all this, the services due to the government,—remember, too, that cases occur in which a peasant is obliged to be six weeks from his home, with his horses and cart, carrying imperial stores to the frontier,—and then judge whether he is permitted to cultivate, without interruption, the land which he receives, as the only return for his labour.

In order to give a more distinct and lively idea of the services to which a peasant is bound, as well as to shew that they are actually required of him, I shall here insert an extract of

the form of an account, which I was permitted to make from the books of a particular estate.

It contains the several heads, or items; and shews distinctly, at one view, all the claims to which the peasant is liable from his Lord. In the original, the respective amount of each, in days or money, was marked by figures; but, as these amounts are merely local, they can have but little interest, and are therefore omitted.

Tojas.—12 eggs given yearly by each peasant.

Tsibe.—2 fowls do.

Kappam.—2 capons do.

Itze Vaj.—Butter.

Borju Penz.—Calf money. Sums paid in lieu of the $\frac{1}{30}$ of a calf by each peasant.

Fust Penz.—1 florin paid by each house to the landlord.

Robot Valtsag.—Money paid to redeem the appointed labour or robot.

Olfavagas.—A klafter of wood to be cut yearly by each peasant.

Fonyas.—The spinning. Each must spin six pfund of hemp.

Hoszszufuvares.—Long journeys every four sessions, being called upon to furnish one annually.

Kulombfele.—Sundries, including the money due from the peasants on account of favours granted by the lord.

Belso Fundus.—Money paid on account of garden ground, when the house and garden occupy more than a quarter of an acre.

Halaszat.—The fishery. Each peasant being called upon for one day's fishing.

Segelotul.—Money paid for an additional right of feeding cattle on open pastures, or in the forests; and this is generally paid in a joint sum by a whole village or hamlet.

Rettul.—Remuneration for additional pasture lands usually paid in labour, four or five days' *robot*, that is, service, being given for a joch.

Fold tul.—Paid for additional arable land, at the rate of three days' labour for a joch, besides one-fifth of the produce.

Szoloszedes.—Vintage. Each peasant who possesses any vineyard must give one day's labour at his Lord's vintage.

Olfavagas.—When the peasant is not called upon to cut wood, he must give two days' labour.

Fonyas.—If the hemp-spinning be not claimed, he must give six days' labour.

Vadaszat.—Hunting. Every person who has a house must assist in the chace during three days.

Hossu fuvarellen.—Each entire session, instead of its proportionate assistance in the long journeys, gives fifteen or twenty days' labour. If the peasant be unwilling to make this exchange, the landlord cannot oblige him to do it, but is at liberty to sell the long journey which is due to another person, who is usually some Jew, or travelling merchant.

Urbarial-Competentz.—The 104 days' labour which each session yields to the Lord.

Restant.—The arrears of labour. This may be claimed after any period of years.

Adoz Hazok.—The sum of florins due from the peasants on account of their houses, each paying one florin.

Arendas.—Those handicraft workmen and other lodgers, who have no separate houses, pay money.

Robotos.—Or, if they prefer it, must give 12 days' labour.

Szabados.—Having a house as the free gift of the Lord, who requires no robot.

Puszta.—Houses uninhabited.

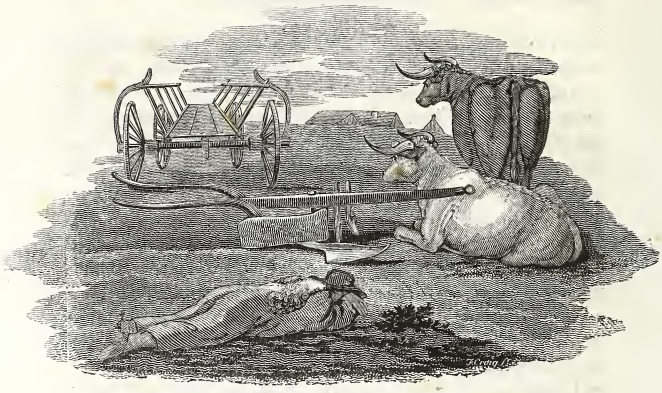
Arendas.—Money paid for houses instead of labour.
Robottos.—Labour paid for houses.

Summa.—The number of whole sessions.
The number of peasants having whole sessions.
The number having two-fourths.
The number having three-fourths.
The number having one-fourth.
————Money paid to the peasants for work done above what is due to the Lord.
————Number of days' labour due from all the peasants yearly.
————Labour remaining from the last year.
————Days' labour done upon the estate during the preceding year.

In the village we were now visiting, the portions or sessions of the peasants were generally divided into thirds. Being curious to examine the interior of their houses, I was gratified by the Director, who conducted me into some of them; I believe, however, with a very pardonable selection of the best. I was surprised to find, that men, so negligent of their personal appearance, should enjoy in their houses so much comfort and good order. The door opens in the side of the house into the middle room, or kitchen, in which is an oven, constructed of clay, well calculated for baking bread, and various implements for household purposes, which generally occupy this apartment fully. On each side of the room is a door, communicating on one hand with the family dormitory, in which are the two windows that look into the road. This chamber is usually small, but well arranged; the beds in good order, piled upon each other, to be spread out on the floor at

night, and the walls covered with a multiplicity of pictures and images of our Saviour, together with dishes, plates, and vessels of coarse earthen ware. The other door from the kitchen leads to the store-room, the repository of the greater part of the peasant's riches, consisting of bags of grain of various kinds, both for consumption and for seed, bladders of tallow, sausages, and other articles of provision, in quantities which it would astonish us to find in an English cottage. We must, however, keep in mind, that the harvest of the Hungarian peasant anticipates the income of the whole year; and, from the circumstances in which he is placed, he should be rather compared with our farmer than our labourer. The yards or folds between the houses are usually much neglected, and are the dirty receptacles of a thousand uncleanly objects. Light carts and ploughs, with which the owner performs his stated labour, —his meagre cattle,—a loose rudely formed heap of hay,— and half a dozen ragged children,—stand there in mixed confusion, over which three or four noble dogs, of a peculiar breed, resembling in some degree the Newfoundland dog, keep faithful watch.

It was at this village that I first saw one of Graf Hunyadi's flocks of sheep, esteemed his third in point of improvement of breed. The wool was beautiful, and the pens well constructed. But of the Graf's excellent and numerous flocks I shall hereafter speak more particularly. We now returned towards the castle, calling at another sheep-fold in our way, and crossing again the extensive plain over which we passed in the morning. Our evening was spent as the former, except that the physician excused himself from remaining to supper, as it was his turn to inspect the patrole, which, in consequence of the many depredations lately committed in the neighbourhood, was established at Urmeny.



CHAPTER IV.

Urmeny.—Hungarian Granary.—Succession of Crops.—Large flocks of improved Sheep.—Great attention to the Breed and Folding.—Horned Cattle.—Leave Urmeny.—Appearance of the Country.—Leva.—A Funeral.—Batha.—Steinbach.—Approach and arrival at Schemnitz.—Minute regulations for management of Sheep.

The following morning, whilst at breakfast with the Director, his children, according to the custom of the country, came in to pay their morning duty, each kissing his father's hand. It was a ceremony which had not dwindled into mere form, but appeared to be accompanied with feelings of affection and respect. We afterwards walked round the garden, visiting the dove and poultry house, which are admirable, and the kennel, where I found many greyhounds, with which the Graf frequent-

ly amuses himself. A walk to the nursery ground followed; one of the Graf's favourite objects being to shelter with hedge-rows and belts the naked country in which he lives, and he has already planted much in the neighbourhood of Urmeny. We visited also a well-built granary, but the mode of storing wheat generally adopted in this country is very objectionable, for the grain, after being beaten out, often by the feet of horses and oxen, is deposited in holes in the ground, where it is kept during the winter. It there acquires a strong mouldy smell, which goes off, in some degree, it is true, by exposure to the air, but the grain always suffers much deterioration. Accordingly, close to the Graf's farm-yard is a piece of open ground, where thirty or forty little tumuli were seen, each of them covering the entrance to one of these subterraneous depositaries; and in the course of the day, I had an opportunity of being present whilst one of them was opened. In their construction, a circular hole is dug to the depth of about three feet, and an excavation is formed of such dimensions, that a man can sit in it to stow away the grain, and assist in bringing it to the surface when required. This done, a fire is lighted with a view of hardening the sides, which are afterwards lined with straw. When the grain is thus stowed, straw is placed upon the top, and earth thrown in to fill up the entrance hole, which forms the neck, as it were, of the cave, and a little heap of earth remains, pointing out the spot; or, when there is occasion to make use of a distinctive mark, a piece of wood, with notches, is stuck into it. You seldom pass a village without seeing a number of such little hillocks in a neighbouring piece of ground.

We now proceeded to visit another of the Graf's farms, called Keszi, at the distance of about three English miles. A large collection of peasants, with their cattle and ploughs, were at work on

one part of it. The system here adopted is nearly the common agriculture of the country, the usual succession of crops being,

1st year, wheat and rye, sown in winter.

2d year, grain of various sorts, sown in spring.

3d year, fallow.

4th year, winter grain.

5th year, spring grain.

6th year, fallow, with manure and good dunging, and so on, a simple fallow every third, and manuring every sixth year.

Maize is one of the most productive crops. It is planted in April, and cut in September or October, yielding thirty-fold, whilst other crops yield not more than ten-fold at the utmost.

Turnips have been fairly tried without success, on account of the dryness which usually prevails during the summer months.

The land is ploughed very shallow, seldom above three inches, with a plough which has its share almost horizontal. The whole of the grain, except the maize, is broad-cast, and rubbed in with a brush harrow. As well as I could judge, from the winter crops all looking green and well at the time I saw them, the seed is sown with great regularity. The maize is put in the ground by women who follow after the plough, and with a hoe turn back a little mould, drop a few grains, and immediately replace the earth.

It is in this part of the Graf's estate, that he has established his race ground, on a most beautiful piece of turf just without the limits of a park which he has laid out according to the English taste, and where he is about to build a small house. He is stocking his park with pheasants and other game, and the trees have already acquired considerable size.

At the farm of Keszi the Graf likewise keeps the most exten-

sive flocks which he possesses in this part of Hungary, consisting of about twelve hundred sheep, which have now been ten years under improvement. In the care of them he employs one chief shepherd and six men. The sheep are divided into flocks of from one hundred to two hundred, as circumstances may require; and we arrived just as they were following their shepherds in various directions, over a wide extent of sweet pasture, resembling our English downs.

Amongst other objects interesting to the agriculturist, was an excellent range of cow stalls, and one of the large bee houses, which are often very valuable in Hungary, but this was somewhat neglected.

On returning to dinner, we found a neighbouring Graf, who had driven over, on a visit to Urmeny. He dined with us, and invited me, with much kindness, to his residence in the mountains behind Neutra; but as my time would not admit of it, I was forced to decline an invitation which it would, on many accounts, have given me great pleasure to accept. As soon as he had taken his leave, Mr Appell, anxious to amuse me, ordered horses again to his carriage, and conducted me to the Graf's estate, called Tarrany. It was here that we found the finest of all the Hunyadi flocks, and that upon which the proprietor chiefly depends for his future progress. I shall therefore take this opportunity to speak more at large respecting the breed, and the care taken in its improvement. The original breed of Hungarian sheep is, in fact, the real *Ovis strepsiceros* of authors, covered with very coarse wool, and bearing upright spiral horns. Improvement on this stock by crosses, with other varieties, is become so general, that a flock of the native race is seldom to be met with, excepting upon the estates of the clergy.

The great improvement has been by the introduction of

Spanish blood. Some of the great proprietors have themselves imported from Spain; others have obtained rams from the flocks of the Emperor of Austria, and others from various private sources, so that at present there is scarcely any flock of importance which has not derived advantage from the Spanish cross.

In the year 1773, a Royal flock was established at Mercopail, to assist in the general improvement. This has, however, been latterly somewhat neglected, on account of another since formed at Holitsch. The wool is now a great object of commerce. In 1802, it was calculated that above twelve million and a half pfund was exported from Hungary, a large portion of which goes into Austria, and is either there manufactured, or is carried to more distant markets; and much of that which is sold in England, under the denomination of Saxon wool, is actually the produce of Hungary, exported in spite of the heavy duty it pays on leaving the Austrian dominions.

It is about fourteen years since the first Spanish sheep were introduced upon the Hunyadi estates, from Moravia, where Baron Geisler had been many years employed in improving the breed. Since that time the Graf has exercised unwearied assiduity in crossing and recrossing, and introducing new and more perfect Merinos. By keeping the most accurate registers of the pedigree of each sheep, he has been enabled to proceed, with a degree of mathematical precision, in the regular and progressive improvement of his whole stock. Out of the seventeen thousand sheep composing his flock, there is not one whose whole family he cannot trace by reference to his books; and he regulates his yearly sales by these registers. He considers the purity of blood the first requisite towards perfection in the fleece; but he is well aware that little can be done, unless the sheep be kept in health and condition. For this

purpose, he has adopted a system of folding, which, as far as I can judge, is almost perfect; and the whole is conducted with so much accuracy, that I contemplated it with pleasure and astonishment.

At each of the head-quarters (if I may so term them) of his sheep, well-built sheds are constructed, having brick pillars at certain distances, which leave about half the side open, and thus admit a free circulation of air during summer, and afford easy means of excluding the cold in winter. The height of the sheds is about seven feet to the springing of the roof; and they are divided by little racks, into such spaces as are necessary for the division amongst the flocks. Racks are also arranged round the whole, so that all the sheep can conveniently feed at them. The floor is covered with straw, and the upper layer, being continually renewed, a dry and warm bedding is obtained.

In these houses the sheep are kept almost constantly during winter, that is, from November till April, and are then fed three times a day upon dry food. They are watered twice a day, from a well close at hand. Even during summer, the sheep are driven under cover every evening, and they are conducted home in the day time when it rains, or when the heat is oppressive. They always lamb in the house; the ewe being placed, upon this occasion, in a little pen by herself, where she remains unmolested. These pens are about three feet long, by two feet wide, and are formed by means of hurdles. It is owing to this care that they never lose a lamb. But, to give a more perfect and connected idea of the minute order and extreme care taken in this establishment, and to gratify those who are really interested in the subject, I am induced to insert, at the end of the present chapter, the regulations made by Graf Hunyadi. They came into my hands through a very circuitous medium, and I trust

a sufficient apology, for publishing private directions of this nature, will be found, in a wish to point out to my English readers, the assiduous exertions of an Hungarian noble, who takes the lead in the agriculture of his country, and in my unwillingness that they should be deprived of the valuable hints which may be thus afforded. Their utility makes them almost public property; and I foresee no inconvenience that can arise from making them known.

The first idea on reading these regulations will probably be, that, while they look well, in a theoretical point of view, they are too nice for practice. Such, however, is not the case. I believe, from all which I saw, that they are completely put in execution at Urmeny. The Graf has, indeed, one advantage, which will not often be found; he has inspired all his officers and servants with an interest in the subject. The number of persons employed is about one man to every hundred sheep, and each of them considers his flock as his family and pride.

The result of all this care has been a success, which could scarcely have been anticipated. A conception can hardly be formed of flocks more uniformly excellent. The sheep are strong and healthy; and, for the Spanish cross, large. Their fleeces perfect,—not a lock broken or displaced,—and even the tail and legs covered with good wool. It is, of course, the wool, and not the carcase, which is the great object in a country so poor, and so thinly peopled, as Hungary.

The pfund (1.23 lb. avoirdupois) of wool on the spot, yields nearly one and a half silver gulden, which, as the gulden varies, according to the course of exchange, from one-seventh to one-ninth of a pound Sterling, is between 3s. and 4s. 6d. Three pfund (about $3\frac{3}{4}$ lbs.) is estimated as about the average product of each sheep. Some, however, particularly the rams, yield six

or seven. The whole of the wool, without any separation, and only washed on the back of the sheep, is sold at the same price, and the consequence is, that, from flocks which, if covered with the ordinary wool of the country, might be expected to yield an income of 15,000 or 20,000 guldens, not less than 50,000 guldens are now annually produced.

In this sketch of the Hunyadi economy, I must not neglect the horned cattle. The native Hungarian breed bears much resemblance to the wild white species which was formerly found in our own country. They are large, vigorous, and active, of a dirty white colour, with horns of a prodigious length, exceeding, in this respect, even the long horned breed of Lancashire. The oxen are most excellently adapted for the plough, uniting to all the qualities of the ordinary ox, a very superior degree of activity.

The cow is, perhaps, deficient in milk, yet, by care in the choice of the best, and attention to regular milking, the quantity given by one has been increased to 2000 quarts in a year. In general, the dairy of the Graf consists of crosses of the Styrian breed, or the still more valued breeds of Switzerland, of which one in his possession gave 3400 quarts in the year. The cows are constantly in the house during the whole year, and are brushed and cleaned like horses daily; their stalls are kept perfectly neat, and are very well constructed. A raised passage about three feet broad, runs along the middle of the building, on each side of which, the cows are arranged with their heads towards each other. This passage is boarded on its sides and floor, and enables the servants employed, both to look at, and feed the cattle with the greatest convenience.

Besides common cattle, the Graf has about a dozen buffaloes, singularly uncouth animals; their carcase in proportion to their height, which is inferior to that of a cow, very round

and broad. Their colour is black, their hair coarse, and so scanty that the skin is discernible in every part. The tail more nearly resembles that of the elephant than of the ox; and the head is so placed in a horizontal position, with the nose stretched forward, that their horns usually lie on their shoulders. The noise they make has no resemblance to the lowing of a cow, it is rather a shrill snort. They are bred in Hungary for the same purposes as ordinary cattle. The milk which they give is richer than other milk, and considerable in quantity. A single animal yielded 1470 quarts in the year. As beasts of labour, they are excessively strong, but they are slow and unmanageable.

The dairy establishments are distributed in different places, and put under the care of resident servants or peasants, who have to account to the proprietor for the produce chiefly in butter. A steward or trusty person attends each day to see how much milk is obtained. At certain intervals the trial is made to discover what quantities of butter should be yielded by a given quantity of milk, and thus a good check is placed upon all parties employed. A regular register is also kept of the quantity of milk given monthly by each cow, for the purpose of ascertaining what calves particularly deserve to be reared. I shall here conclude the subject by subjoining a short extract of two or three items from such a register.

Name.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Sum.	Produced		Name of Calf.	Destination		Observations.
														Bull Calf.	Cow Calf.		of Calf.	of Cow.	
Gyurtsa. (Buffalo.)						53$\frac{3}{4}$	201	224	161$\frac{2}{4}$	234		6	880		9th June		Slaughtered.		Mother killed on account of age.
Bukross. (Buffalo.)	105$\frac{2}{4}$	87	64$\frac{2}{4}$					7	289$\frac{2}{4}$	230$\frac{2}{4}$	119$\frac{2}{4}$	137$\frac{2}{4}$	1113		7th Aug.	Adyla	at Urmeny.	at Urmeny.	She is good, gives much milk, and her calves are handsome.
Oudass. (Buffalo.)	33					94$\frac{2}{4}$	283	259	274	217$\frac{2}{4}$	179$\frac{2}{4}$	141$\frac{2}{4}$	1471$\frac{2}{4}$	4th June			Slaughtered.	at Urmeny.	Do. Do.
Szorossa. (Cross of Hungarian and Styrian)	3$\frac{2}{4}$	136$\frac{3}{4}$	168	157	217$\frac{1}{4}$	231$\frac{2}{4}$	190$\frac{3}{4}$	114$\frac{1}{4}$	32				1251	10th Dec.		Feker.	at Keszi.	at Keszi.	Moderately good calves and milk.
Porossa.	31$\frac{1}{4}$	96$\frac{1}{4}$	186$\frac{1}{4}$	168$\frac{2}{4}$	253$\frac{1}{4}$	281$\frac{3}{4}$	275$\frac{3}{4}$	191$\frac{1}{4}$	89	30			1603	20th Dec.		Rechter.	Do.	Do.	Sickly calves. Much milk, but bad.
Juna. (Swiss breed born in Hungary.)		88$\frac{3}{4}$	192$\frac{3}{4}$	199$\frac{2}{4}$	161$\frac{2}{4}$	231$\frac{1}{4}$	199$\frac{1}{4}$	233$\frac{1}{4}$	164	103$\frac{2}{4}$	17$\frac{2}{4}$		1491$\frac{2}{4}$	5th Jan.		Ferdinand.	at Tarrany.	at Tarrany.	Middling calves and milk.
Diana. (Swiss.)		86	199	184$\frac{3}{4}$	164	249$\frac{3}{4}$	223	223$\frac{1}{4}$	155$\frac{2}{4}$	94$\frac{3}{4}$	2$\frac{2}{4}$		1582$\frac{3}{4}$	5th Jan.		Ferdinand.	Do.	Do.	Good milk, fine calves.
Oreg Csako. Hungarian. Mixed colour; mode rate size; fine horns.			59$\frac{2}{4}$	92	152	180$\frac{2}{4}$	183$\frac{2}{4}$	186	174	54			1083$\frac{2}{4}$	31st Dec.			for Labour.		

After remaining a few days at Urmeny, I pursued my journey, furnished with a note to one of the Graf's stewards, resident at a village through which the road passed, desiring him to provide me with a conveyance to Léva. Thus did my worthy friend the Director complete the hospitality with which my whole residence at Urmeny was marked. Nothing had been left undone which the kindest attention could suggest as gratifying to a stranger. It was truly with regret that I left it, and this feeling was much increased by the recollection that the absence of the Graf, during my whole stay, had deprived me of the gratification of making myself acquainted with one whose liberal and enlightened exertions had so much benefited his country.

My driver was a Sclavonian peasant, a rough unpolished creature, whose matted locks, falling from a little dirty cap of leather, hung over a thick cloak made of woollen blanketing. To add, indeed, to the filthy appearance of this figure, he was afflicted with that unseemly disease, known by the name of Plica Polonica, in which the hair grows so matted, that it is impossible to disentangle it, and becomes actually felted into balls, which, from an unfounded apprehension of bad consequences, the peasants are very unwilling to have removed. This disease is not, however, common in Hungary, and is, I believe, nearly confined to the northern districts. The country was flat and open. It was the Sabbath, and passing a little village, we saw the peasants ranged along the steps and wall of the church-yard, as the bell summoned them to prayer. The men, notwithstanding the warmth of a fine day, were closely wrapt in their thick cloaks, of which the wool was generally turned inwards. The women were clothed in short blue pelisses bound with fur, and wore, as well as the men, large heavy Hessian boots; those of the young women being made of

yellow leather, with high heels of a bright red. As the carriage passed, the men bowed respectfully, but the salutation of the women was less discernible.

The country was adorned with a little wood, and we passed another village with a church upon a gentle elevation by the way side. Large groups of peasants were stretched on the grass indulging their natural indolence near a few shabby calashes, such as the petty nobles and officers of large estates generally drive, and which are drawn by four, or six peasants' horses. I alighted for a few minutes, and found the congregation devout and attentive.

The space about the church, from its elevation and dryness, had been fixed upon as well fitted for the preservation of corn; and where tombs might have been expected, I found the little earthen heaps which mark the depositories of grain. I soon discovered that my driver was altogether ignorant of his way, and we wandered entirely from any road or track: this, however, we at length regained by the assistance of the peasants. Amongst them I noticed some young women whose heads were not, as usual, enveloped in white handkerchiefs. Beautiful hair carefully combed in its natural direction, and rolled into two cords before, and one larger behind,—to which the two front cords were united, and the whole bound together, —was plaited with ribbon in the form of a long tail hanging down the back.

The landscape now became varied with wood, and even vineyards. We entered a forest, and had the good fortune to choose the right road out of three which offered themselves, and at length came upon the large village of Fuses, on the outskirts of which I observed many children of Cyganis, lying naked about the doors of their mud cottages. We passed along a charming valley, bounded by oak wood on either side,

the red-breasts and larks singing sweetly. The diversity of the country increased as we approached another Sclavonian village, and afterwards passed a farm of Graf Hunyadi, situated upon a rising ground. The appearance of the flocks and farm-buildings told me immediately who the possessor was, and I stopped the carriage for a few minutes to take a general view of the establishment.

After a short time, we descended abruptly from a ridge into an extensive plain. Immediately beneath was a fine wood, upon the skirts of which is situated the village of Pell, to which I was directing my way. Being Sunday, the Graf's steward was from home in his carriage, which the family seemed to regret, as they did not well know how to fulfil the wishes of the Director, by forwarding me to Léva. When, however, they found that I was quite indifferent as to the mode of conveyance, if I could only proceed, they soon gave orders for a peasant's waggon, and, whilst it was preparing, I was requested to partake of their family dinner, which was just placed on the table. After which, I examined an extensive and well-regulated dairy establishment, which differs little from that I have already described.

The Graf has here a brewery, cultivating his own hops, and selling the beer which is too much for his private consumption. It appears that hops grow wild, although they are rarely cultivated in this country, for almost the whole that are consumed in Hungary have hitherto been imported from Bohemia.

The waggon being ready, I contrived to form a seat with my portmanteau and a few bundles of straw; but the rough motion of the vehicle soon destroyed all my hopes of comfort; and I found sufficient employment in watching and keeping together my books and other loose articles, which might

easily have been lost through the sides and bottom of the carriage. It was the common peasant's waggon, about six feet long, and two feet and a half broad, the side of rough rail work, the bottom of three or four unjoined planks. This was drawn by four small meagre horses, scarcely connected with it, by a slight harness of ropes. The peasant, in his cloak, sat upon one of the wheel-horses, and, with a single cord, directed the two leaders, whilst his long whip whistled round his head incessantly. As to the rapidity of our progress there was no cause of complaint; we trotted briskly over the plain, which was fertile, but often marshy. We crossed the river Gran by a wooden bridge, well constructed for bearing against the swollen current; and, after passing two or three villages, reached the public road which leads to Léva. Just on the outside of the town there is a larger settlement of Cyganis than usual. They occupy a row of at least a dozen houses, and present a sad picture of wretchedness. On entering the town, I found tolerable streets; but, as in most of the towns in this low country, the road was dirty beyond description, and the wheels sunk almost to the axles in the mud. I now explained to my conductor that he must drive me to the posthouse; but, when I got there, the whole yard was full of people, and I learned that the postmaster, having lost his wife, was on the point of following her corpse. This, I plainly saw, would put a stop to my journey for the day, and did not feel much disappointed, as it afforded me an opportunity of attending a ceremony which no one ought to neglect in a foreign country. After three priests, with crosses and incense boxes,—followed by the coffin, and accompanied by a numerous train of mourners, and boys with wax-lights,—had moved with solemn singing towards the burying-place, I went quickly to the inn, dismissed my waggon, and joined the procession. The place of burial

was considerably elevated, at the distance of half a mile from Léva,—a solitary spot of ground, adorned only by crosses raised by the hands of affection over departed friends. As the body was laid in the ground, I thought I perceived more emotion in the spectators than is usual. The rite being performed, the assembly separated during the performance of a solemn chant. The greater part retired to a still higher ground covered with vineyards, on the summit of which a temple is erected as a memorial of our Saviour's death upon Mount Calvary. I remained a little longer than the rest, and beheld a most affecting and beautiful scene. It was the tribute paid by mothers, by children, and by friends, to the remains of those who were gone before them. Tears flowed in torrents from the eyes of a mother and a daughter, who kneeled at the side of a tomb which seemed to have been long the abode of him over whom they prayed. In another spot two little children cried aloud, as they lay with their faces upon a heap of earth, whilst others kissed the mould which had been lately raised.

The loneliness of the spot,—the Carpathian chain stretched out in the distance,—the obscurity of approaching night,—the stillness of nature, interrupted only by the cries of widows and of children,—were sadly, yet harmoniously, combined; and he must have been cold indeed who could witness the scene without emotion.

These humble peasants of Hungary have, through the native promptings of the heart, so blended the memory of their departed friends with the feelings of devotion, that nations boasting of higher degrees of cultivation may respect and follow their example. We may civilize and refine away our feelings till the simple dictates of nature are completely yielded up. With the majority of mankind consolation is sought in

forgetfulness; to present a variety of new objects to the mind, and a constant succession of changes is deemed the duty of a comforter. Thus the only feelings which accompany the death of a friend are supposed to be those purely selfish remembrances which recal to our minds the comforts we have lost,—reducing the whole sentiments of friendship to a standard according to which our estates, our houses, and our fortunes, hold the highest places. For my own part, I am persuaded that the human mind, which derives such satisfaction in the formation of friendships, is capable of maintaining and cherishing these emotions throughout its whole existence, and that we are truly no more pardonable in attempting to forget a friend who is dead, than we should be in forgetting one that is absent. If, putting aside all unintelligible motives, there is one which can be felt and explained, more pure than others, leading us to rejoice in our future prospects, it is the idea and hope of meeting again the friends from whom we have been separated by death.

When I was at Berlin, during the preceding year, I followed the celebrated Iffland to the grave. Mingled with some pomp, you might trace much real feeling. In the midst of the ceremony my attention was attracted by a young woman, who stood near a mound of earth newly covered with turf, which she anxiously protected from the feet of the pressing crowd. It was the tomb of her parent; and the figure of this affectionate daughter presented a monument more striking than the most costly work of art. There were in this burial-ground many tributes, paid by those who loved rather to court than shun the objects of their affection—of friends who lingered with delight over the last parting scene. Throughout the church-yard there was scarcely a mouldering heap of sand which was not covered with the gayest flowers of the season.

Nor were these marks of attention confined to the depositories of the poor. Around the enclosing wall were many monuments of marble, with recesses formed for retirement; where, amidst bowers of green-house plants were placed seats, on which friends might repose, and give way to their reflections and regret.

And now may I ask the reader to wander with me one step farther, whilst I speak of the monarch to whose territories I have already transported him? Frederic of Prussia married the late Queen when very young, and a long course of years had cemented their affection, when her unexpected death threatened to break the bond. The King's sorrow was attended by the sympathy of his people. It was not the edict of the Court, but individual and sincere feeling, which filled Berlin with mourners. The King and the whole family followed her on foot to the grave. A mausoleum of his own design was erected at his favourite garden of Charlottenburg, whither his wife's remains were conveyed. Here, on certain days, the public are allowed to enter; and though, when I saw it, three years had elapsed since the Queen's death, many still continued to visit the spot with reverence and affection. Early on each anniversary, the King and his eleven children, attended by a single priest, repair to this sanctuary, and, descending into the tomb, each places a garland on the coffin, when, having addressed the Almighty in prayer, the King retires to the island of Paon, near Potsdam, and passes the remainder of the day in perfect solitude.

That a monarch who can cherish such feelings, who can so encourage them in his family and in his people, should enjoy their affection and confidence, will astonish no one. When I resided in Berlin, this feeling was at its height, for to the attraction of private virtue was added the splendour of public glory.

But to return to the humble worshippers at Léva. On leaving the burying-ground, I followed those who had ascended the hill of Calvary. They were devoutly kneeling on the grass; addressing their prayers towards the chapel, in which I perceived, through an open grating, some images of our Saviour and the Virgin Mary, which were surrounded with ornaments and lights.

When I had regained the inn, the postmaster desired to know whether I wished for horses on the following morning; and, for the first time since I left Vienna, my passport was demanded. This being examined, the postmaster would not permit me to proceed without four horses, strongly insisting on the steepness of the hills, and badness of the roads. After some debate, it was resolved, that, as the weather, during the night, would affect the state of the roads, it should also determine the necessary number of horses. If no rain fell, we agreed that a pair would be sufficient.

The inn at which I slept was large; but, like all the inns, not only in Hungary, but I may say in Germany, very deficient in comforts. It is curious to observe, with what perfect coolness the traveller is received, as if it were a matter of the greatest indifference, whether he choose to stay or not. It is scarcely by entreaties that the key of a room can be found; and neither entreaties nor commands can procure clean sheets. So little are they accustomed to this luxury, that the servants, even in the best private houses of Hungary, do not always think it necessary to give each stranger a fresh change of linen.

Early the next day I set out, over a most dreadful road, which fully corresponded with the postmaster's description. It lay through an extensive, open, and cultivated country, diversified with gentle risings; and, from time to time, by the road side, a few trees formed broken hedge-rows around the cottages of the pea-

sants. The mountains over Schemnitz and Kremnitz now appeared;—a fine amphitheatre, with some snow still resting in the higher hollows.

At the end of an extensive and elevated plain, we came to the post-town Batha. It is rather a village than a town, having but few houses larger than a cottage, and two churches. The houses differed from those most common in Hungary, in having cellars, to which the descent was by covered steps. In other respects, it was a true example of an Hungarian village. A considerable market was just then held in the street, where a great number of boots, and some crockery-ware, was exposed to sale. The light waggons which passed to and fro,—the peasants clad in their holiday suits,—and the Jewish merchants who busily pursued their interests,—gave a pleasing life and activity to the scene. Here, for the first time, I found myself obliged to speak Latin. The postmaster was an old gentleman, dressed in a perfect Hungarian habit,—a light-blue jacket, edged with fur, and ornamented with silk twist and buttons, a pair of blue pantaloons, with the seams also embroidered, and half boots; his upper lip adorned with mustaches; his hair tied behind in a queue. He could not speak German, and gave me the choice of all the languages he knew; they were, Latin, Hungarian, Sclavonian, and Walachian; from which, of course, I soon made my selection. The postmaster was anxious to hear news from Vienna, and almost all the local information which I drew from him, whilst the horses were getting ready, was, that both the town of Batha and Steinbach, the next post at which I should arrive, were the property of Prince Esterhazy, a name which occurs very frequently in answer to inquiries respecting property in Hungary.

The road, on leaving Batha, gradually rose amongst hillocks,

covered with vineyards, from which we descended upon a country, abounding with mountain scenery, and every step presented new and beautiful views. We wound through a valley, whose sides were covered with woods, and decomposing rocks. A little of the winter snow varied the summit of the mountains. By 12 o'clock, we arrived at Steinbach. This place is situated in a romantic glen, and consists of little more than a posthouse and a small inn. Finding it was likely that I should be detained for horses, I went to the inn, and endeavoured to provide myself with some refreshment. A piece of beef, boiled in a soup of sour crout, bread, and acid wine, was all the place would afford. As I sat in the only little room appropriated for strangers, I observed that the peasants, my companions, had been more provident than myself, trusting only for wine and spirits to the house; for, on entering, each opened his bag and drew out, one a piece of veal, another a sausage, and a third, onions and cheese.

I shortly returned to the post-house, where I found the postmaster and his family sitting down to dinner; and, though I assured them I had already dined at the inn, they hospitably compelled me to join their party. My companions, as they wiped back their mustaches, and with their fingers carelessly supplied themselves with cloves of garlic and shalot, unfolded to me their very grand ideas of the riches of England. They seemed to have represented to themselves the bank of England, and all the other banks in our island, as prodigious store-houses, whose magazines, with difficulty, contained incalculable hoards of money, lying absolutely useless, from its abundance; and I could scarcely persuade them, that any species of money less intrinsically valuable than the precious metals circulated in England. Our dinner was interrupted by a messenger, whose entrance gave rise to a conversation in the

Sclavonian language, apparently of high interest. The postmaster soon explained to me, that it was an affair between his brother-in-law, who sat at the table with us, and a lawyer. It appeared that the gentleman was one of seven brothers, who inherited a village from their father; and that disputes had arisen about the partition. The other observed, that his family had been noble for more than seven hundred years; and I could not help concluding, from his appearance, that, during the course of the time, the property must have suffered much, from divisions like the present, which threatened to place one village under seven separate lords.

It is difficult to imagine a road more beautiful than that which leads from Steinbach to Schemnitz. As it follows the valley in which Steinbach is situated, it continues to rise till the pine mingles itself with the oak and the birch, and it then passes upon the most magnificent terrace, sometimes hanging over the valley on the right, sometimes on the left; and, as it pursues the winding side of the mountain, presents a constant succession of the finest scenery. On the highest elevations, we passed several large reservoirs, formed to collect the water from the melted snow, for the use of the machinery employed in the mines of Windschacht and of Schemnitz. Every thing bespoke a mining district. On all sides were to be observed the traces of industry, employed in improving or destroying. Yet that which we saw was rather the vestige of former labour, than the mark of present activity. After passing through Windschacht, the centre of the mining district, we arrived at the wall and gate before the town of Schemnitz, where, however, no impediment was placed to our quiet entrance.

Regulations adopted in the care of the Flocks of Graf Hunyadi.

1*st*, A dry and airy shed, or cot, of which the size is proportioned to the number of the sheep, is above all things necessary for these animals. In order to give them proper room, we ought to reckon two feet and a half square for each ewe; as the hay-rack, the partition required during lambing, and the lamb itself, will occupy this space.

2*dly*, The cot should be cleaned out at least every four weeks, because the exhalation from the dung produces disease amongst the sheep.

3*dly*, All wetness and moisture is injurious, not only to the health of the sheep, but also to the wool, on which account they ought never to be driven out during rainy weather.

4*thly*, The dew and hoar-frost in the morning are injurious to them, occasioning cough, colds, and diseases of the lungs, and therefore they should not be taken to the pasture until the dew is gone off.

5*thly*, Low and marshy meadows, and such as are covered with luxuriant grass, should still more carefully be guarded against; as also stubble lands, in which the scattered grain has sprung up anew.

6*thly*, In the summer months, when the heat is intense, the sheep must, between the hours of ten and eleven, either be driven back to the cot, or at least be conducted to some shaded place.

7*thly*, It is indispensably necessary that the sheep should be twice taken to water every day, both in summer and winter.

8*thly*, A supply of salt is also necessary, of which, in the summer months, four pfund, and in the winter three pfund,

should be furnished weekly to every hundred head of sheep, so that they may, at least twice every week, have salt to lick.

9*thly*, The rams should not be kept in the same house with the ewes, nor the young with the old.

10*thly*, For fourteen days before the coupling season, the ram should be daily fed with two halbes (equal to three pfund) of oats, and this food should be continued, not only during the coupling, but for fourteen days after; and one ram will thus be sufficient for a flock of eighty ewes, provided great care and attention be paid to him in every other respect during the whole of the season.

11*thly*, During the lambing period, a shepherd must be constantly day and night in the cot, not with the view of affording assistance at the birth, but in order that he may place the lamb as soon as it is cleaned, together with the mother, in a separate pen, which has been before prepared. The ewes which have lambed should, during a week, be driven neither to water nor to pasture, but low troughs of water for this purpose are to be introduced into each partition, in order that they may easily, and at all times, quench their thirst. It is also very useful to put a small quantity of barleymeal into the water, for by this means the quantity of the ewe's milk is much increased. When the lambs are so strong that they can eat, they are to be separated by degrees from their mothers, and fed with the best and finest hay and a few oats, being suffered at first to go to them only three times in each day,—early in the morning, at mid-day, and in the evening,—and so to continue till they can travel to pasture, and fully satisfy themselves. For a week they should then be turned in twice a day, and for another week once a day only, to the ewes, when they may be entirely weaned. At first it is enough if a quarter of a pfund of hay be given every day to each

lamb, and one halbe of oats be divided amongst six—afterwards, and till they are driven out, half a pfund of hay, and a halbe of oats amongst four, will be sufficient.

Regulations for Winter Feeding.

1*st*, The winter feeding should begin as soon as the cold and the hoar-frost prevents the growth of the grass, and if, as it often happens, this should be the case so early as the beginning of October, it is not necessary that the sheep should, from this time forward, be kept constantly in the house, and receive all their food there, but they may, in dry and clear weather, (always observing the fourth of the foregoing regulations,) be driven out so long as the grass is not rendered unwholesome by the frost, and the ground is not covered with snow. During all this time, however, they must not be sent out empty, but before going to pasture must have a third part of their usual daily allowance.

2*dly*, A sheep which is healthy and full grown, will require daily four pfund of food, which must consist of hay and straw. Young sheep should have one pfund less. The daily distribution of food is as follows.

a. From the time when the frost begins, while yet the sheep can go abroad, each receives, in the morning, one pfund and a half of good straw. They are then driven to water, and then to the pasture, where they remain until the dew appears.

b. From the time when the hard frost comes on, and the ground is covered with snow, till twenty days before dropping their lambs, they receive every morning at 5 o'clock, $1\frac{1}{2}$ pf. of clean straw; at 8 o'clock $\frac{1}{2}$ pf. of hay; at 9 o'clock they go to water; at 3 o'clock again $\frac{1}{2}$ pf. of good hay; at 4 o'clock they go again to water; and at 6 o'clock in the evening $1\frac{1}{2}$ pf. of clean straw is again given.

c. From twenty days before dropping their lambs, till the spring pasturage commences, they have every morning at 5 o'clock 1 pf. of clean straw; at 8 o'clock 1 pf. of good hay; at 9 o'clock they go to water; at 3 o'clock in the afternoon, 1 pf. of fine hay; at 4 o'clock they again drink; and at 6 o'clock in the evening they have again a pfund of clean straw.

3dly, The wethers require the same quantity and order in their food, with this difference alone, that in the commencement of winter these receive $\frac{3}{4}$ pf. of hay, and $3\frac{1}{4}$ pf. of straw, and when the cold weather ceases, 1 pf. of hay and 3 pf. of straw.

4thly, The young sheep have, from the period of the complete setting in of winter, till the spring pasture, every morning at 5 o'clock $\frac{3}{4}$ pf. of clean straw; at 8 o'clock $\frac{3}{4}$ pf. of good hay; at 9 o'clock they go to water; at 3 o'clock they have again $\frac{3}{4}$ pf. of good hay; at 4 o'clock they again drink; and lastly, at 6 in the evening have $\frac{3}{4}$ pf. of straw.

5thly, The lambs have generally, four weeks after their birth, or rather as soon as they can eat, dry food; at 8 o'clock $\frac{1}{8}$ pf. of fine hay each; at 12, every 6 lambs have $\frac{1}{64}$ of a metze of oats, and at 3 in the afternoon again $\frac{1}{8}$ pf. of hay; but when they become stronger, they have at each feeding $\frac{1}{4}$ pf. hay, and amongst four, they have one halbe of oats.

6thly, The lambs are early taught to lick the salt, which is placed upon boards in quantities proportionate to their numbers.

Regulations for Feeding in the Summer Months.

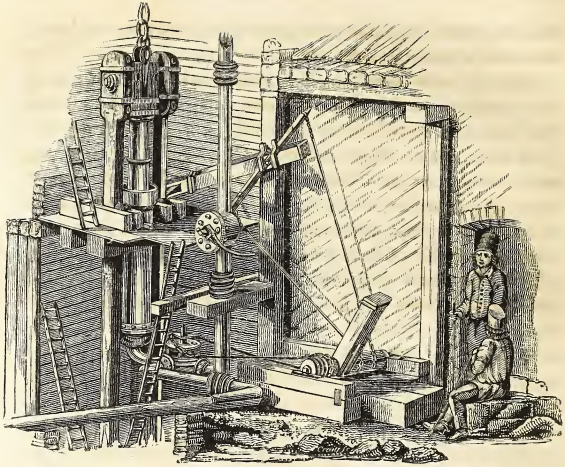
1*st*, During this season the sheep are entirely fed in the pastures. Yet we must remember, that when the sheep first come into the spring pasture, they continue to receive one half of their winter food, that is, 1 pf. of hay in the morning before

they are driven out, and 1 pf. after they come home, until the grass has attained its full perfection.

2dly, As soon as the grass is grown, so that the sheep can find complete nourishment, the winter feeding ceases by little and little, and the following regulations are adopted.

In the morning they remain in the cot till the dew is dried away; they then go to water, and from that are driven to the pastures. Between 10 and 11 o'clock they return to the cot, and after 3 o'clock are driven to water, and then to the pastures, where they remain till the dew falls.

3dly, Salt, finely powdered, should be given them in small troughs every third day before they are driven from the field.



CHAPTER V.

Schemnitz.—General description of the Mining District.—Wind-schacht.—Machinery.—Drawings.—Stephani-schacht.—Preparation of the Ores.—Pochwerk.—Smelting and Refining.—Mining College.—Leave Schemnitz.—Glas-Hutte.—Szent Keresztz.—Kremnitz.—Separation of Gold and Silver.—Alloy.—Mint.—Quantity of precious Metals obtained.—Process of Amalgamation, as practised in Saxony.—Return to Schemnitz.

The early history of the Hungarian mines is involved in some obscurity, but it is probable that the Saxons or Germans who came to Hungary about the twelfth century, first explored these

mineral treasures. The Emperor Charles Robert founded Schmölnitz, and brought mining to some perfection. This state of prosperity seems to have ceased, in some degree, at the beginning of the sixteenth century; but Ferdinand the First, and a succession of kings who followed him, improved it greatly. During the period of their greatest prosperity, it is said, that the mines of Hungary have given occupation to above 30,000 persons, of whom above 10,000 are reckoned in the districts of Schemnitz and Kremnitz.

The town of Schemnitz (Schelmetz banya) is venerable, on account of its antiquity, for it is said to have been built in the year 745, but its Mining College was not established till the reign of Maria Theresa. Schemnitz is situated on a steep declivity, in the bosom of a bold mountainous country. The streets at the moment I entered were deluged with torrents of melted snow. It contains many good-looking houses, with shops and coffee-houses. The inns promised little from their outward appearance, but that to which I was directed, called the *Hohen-Haus*, afforded more comfort than almost any I had met with on the Continent. It is true, that a stranger arriving so early in the year, was an unusual sight; and I had almost the uninterrupted possession of the whole house and attendants. I was furnished with a letter from Baron Seeberg to Mr D'Höring, a counsellor of mines, and the professor of chemistry at Schemnitz, but unfortunately he was from home. Under these circumstances, I thought it best to call at once upon the Oberstkammer Graf, who has the supreme authority over the mining district of Schemnitz, for the purpose of inquiring from him the necessary steps to be taken for gaining admission to the mines, and the establishments connected with them. I took with me a letter which I had obtained through the kindness of Baron Jacquin from the bureau of mines in Vienna, by

which permission was granted me to see every thing connected with the Hungarian and Transylvanian mines, and accompanied with a recommendation to the care and the instruction of all professors and persons exercising offices in the mining departments.

The Oberst-kammer Graf, Baron de Schlugga, received me with the greatest politeness, and told me, that if I would mention an hour the following morning, and what I wished to see, the proper officer should be ready to attend me. He at the same time advised me first to repair to Windschacht, where I might best gain a general insight into the whole proceedings. Accordingly seven o'clock the following morning was appointed.

In order to give a general view of the mining district of Schemnitz, it must be mentioned, that the whole of the mountain mass is a species of claystone porphyry, here called the *Saxum Metalliferum;* the mountain caps being pretty generally of *grunstein,* a species of basaltic rock.

This mineral district is of considerable extent. I have no exact information on this subject, but suppose, from the marks which were pointed out to me, as shewing the limits of the metallic country, that the whole might be included in an extent of five or six miles square. This district has been so diligently explored, that no one entertains much hope of any further discovery of importance being made.

There are five principal mineral veins (or courses) which run almost parallel to each other nearly east and west, each from 10 to 20 fathoms in thickness, at the distance of from 60 to 300 or 400 fathoms from each other, and are connected by various small branches; they have been followed to between 200 and 300 fathoms in depth. When, however, we speak of the great veins being 10 or 20 fathoms in thickness, it must not be supposed that the vein of ore extends to this

Engraved by J. Byrne.

A VIEW OF SCHEMNITZ AND THE SURROUNDING COUNTRY.

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width; all that is meant is, that to this breadth the nature of the rock varies from that of the mass of the mountain; and in this part feldspar generally prevails over all the other components. This mineral course, or vein, is throughout intersected by metallic veins of various sizes, some from two to four inches thick, of rich ore, opening here and there in cavities coated by crystals of the ore, with quartz, calcareous spar, &c. and thence branching off in small collateral veins, sometimes hardly larger than a thread, and scarcely affording a trace of the ore. Every little appearance is, however, followed by the miner with hope, though his pursuit often ends in disappointment. It is but seldom that these indications lead him beyond what are called the walls of the great vein, or gangue.

In these extensive courses, there are twelve royal mines, which extend over a space of about 2200 toises, by 900, or nearly 1200, English acres, besides a number belonging to private individuals, who are obliged to dispose of all the ores they obtain to the royal smelting works, at a fixed rate. The whole of these mines have a communication with each other, at what is called the Emperor Francis's adit or level, at the depth of 180 toises, or nearly 200 fathoms, which is the lowest point at which they have hitherto been able to give the water a free egress: to this, therefore, they are obliged to raise all which collects in the deeper workings. The whole length of this subterraneous canal, from the valley into which it opens, is said to be above twelve miles. They have for the last thirty years been at work upon a new water level, at a considerably greater depth than this, to be called after the Emperor Joseph. It opens into the river Gran, and it is supposed to be the lowest possible level at which the water can be drawn off. Although it is as yet far from being finished, some of the mines have already experienced benefit from it.

Owing to several causes, the returns from these mines are by no means so great as they formerly were. This arises partly from the actual exhaustion of the minerals, and in part from the financial circumstances of Austria, which are supposed to render it unable to carry on the works with the former ardour, and more particularly prevent it from paying the private mining companies with sufficient liberality to encourage their exertions.

According to the usual stipulations, these private adventurers are to deliver their ores in a state fit for the smelting furnaces, and to receive 19 florins and $\frac{12}{20}$ (equal to about L. 2, 8s. Sterling) for every mark (8 oz.) of pure silver, which is, in fact, worth 24 florins of the silver currency of Austria; but, under the present circumstances, (April 1815,) when the paper currency is depreciated to about one-fourth in value of the silver currency, these companies are paid 9 $\frac{16}{20}$ florins in silver, and the other moiety in paper; which reduces their reimbursement to less than 12 florins in silver currency per mark. The consequence is, that they do no more work than is just sufficient to preserve an undisputed right to their mines; for, by the mining laws, any person who discovers ore on a part of the mountains, not yet appropriated as a mine, may work it for his own advantage; but if he fail to dig a certain small quantity every fourteen days, he loses his right, and any other person may possess himself of it.

The result actually is, that where, before the Turkish and French war, there were nearly 100,000 marks, that is, 50,000 pounds (of 16 oz.) weight of silver brought, in the course of a year, into the mint at Kremnitz, the average quantity does not now exceed one-third part of that amount, and the whole weight of gold seldom exceeds 100 marks per month. Of this silver the royal mines in the district of Schemnitz yield about 25,000 marks annually, and about 300 marks of gold;

the rest is collected from the royal mines about Kremnitz, and the adventures of private companies.

To proceed after this digression. At seven the next morning, I set out towards the mine of Windschacht. It was a frost, and every thing looked gay and cheerful, as we traversed the winding mountain-terrace, by which I had the day before approached Schemnitz. In about half an hour we reached the place, and repaired to the house of the Bergrath, Pribila, who I found had been made acquainted with my intended visit, by a messenger from the Oberst-kammer Graf. He shewed me a small collection of very fine minerals, some from this district, others from the rich sulphur mines of Galitia, where his son is Bergrath, and some from the Transylvanian mines, where he has a brother who holds a similar dignity. The ores from Schemnitz and Kremnitz seldom possess any great beauty.

The principal objects of curiosity in the mine of Windschacht being the machinery, I was put under the care of the Ober Kunst Meister, or chief director of the machines, and being dressed in a miner's jacket, overalls, and cap, and a leathern apron buckled on behind, we proceeded to the mouth of the shaft, where is erected the *Bremse* machine, as it is here named, by which the ore is drawn up, and all materials for constructions or repairs let down into the mine. This machine consists of a double overshot water wheel, on which the water falls from a reservoir, supplied by pipes from the hill which lies above it, and, as the water is made to fall upon one side or the other of the wheel, it moves either in one direction, or the contrary. The axle of the water wheel is connected to a cylindric beam, supported at each end by masonry, round which is constructed a gigantic reel, upon which two cables are coiled in contrary directions; thus the communication from the surface to the bottom of the pit is carried on, the one winding and draw-

ing up, whilst the other unwinds and lets down. To regulate the motion of this massive engine, a fly-wheel, of considerable diameter, is connected with the axle near to the end at which the water acts, and it is by two beams, the one above, and the other beneath, which can be brought in a moment to press upon this fly, that the motion of the whole machine is checked, and brought under command. The management of the regulator, as well as the care of directing the water upon one side or the other of the water wheel, is entrusted to one person, who, standing at the mouth of the mine, directs the whole with ease and certainty.

My next object was the machinery by which the water is lifted from the deeper parts of the mines, to the height of the Emperor Francis's level; we therefore descended that part of the Leopold schacht which is appropriated to it. The shaft we went down was completely perpendicular, and the whole of this descent was performed by means of ladders; each ladder about ten steps in length. Having descended the first, we came to a platform of boards, on the opposite end of which was a trap-door, which opened upon the second ladder, and having descended ten steps more, we arrived at another platform, and so on. In this way we went down 72 klafters, (fathoms,) during the whole of which we were close to the machinery, in a constant noise, and amidst the continued dropping of water, which soon found its way through all our clothes. I now employed myself in endeavouring to comprehend the parts, and the mode of action of this great instrument; and then, having attended to the manner of working of a few parties of miners, we proposed to reascend. For our greater ease, my conductor asked me if I would venture upon the mode of ascent, which is permitted as a favour to the officers of the mine; to which having willingly agreed, we passed along a gallery to

another shaft, where he made a signal, by giving the rope which hung down from the surface a certain motion, and in a short time three seats made of rope, and three large Hungarian cloaks, were lowered down to us. The Ober Kunst Meister first folded himself in a cloak, and, being placed in one of the seats, to which he tied his lamp, he was drawn up about five yards; I then seated myself in the same way in the second, strongly embracing the cable to which the seats were attached with my knees, as I was directed; and lastly came in the third, the miner who had been accompanying us. Our ascent then began towards the open air, where we soon arrived with the greatest ease and security. This shaft was perfectly dry, and strongly cased with a frame-work of timber from the top to the bottom.

The necessary supply of timber is a source of prodigious expence in the Hungarian mines. The rock stone is of a nature so liable to decompose, that they cannot employ it in walling these perpendicular shafts, and the wood work, however strong, seldom lasts above fifteen or twenty years; and in parts where the current of air is not good, is destroyed in a much shorter time.

As we approached the surface, the cold became very severe, and the sides of the pit were covered with ice. It is through this shaft that the current of fresh air passes into the mine; and I was told, that the intensity of the cold was sometimes such as scarcely to be borne. After having been several hours under ground, it was not a little gratifying to find myself again in the light of the sun; but those by whom I was surrounded, return day after day to this dismal abode, and, having done so from their childhood, scarcely feel it to be a hardship.

The miners are usually divided into three parties, each remaining under ground eight hours at one time; those who

have the care of the machinery remain twelve hours. The whole number of persons employed in this mine is about 400.

The machine which I had been viewing, and which was first constructed at Schemnitz about the year 1749, by the chief engineer Höll, was, before the improvement of the steam-engine, considered the most valuable for raising water out of mines which had ever been brought into use.

It is worked by water, exerting its force to establish its equilibrium in an inverted syphon, and acting upon a moveable piston by its hydrostatic pressure. To apply it, it is necessary to have the command of water considerably above the engine, and this is effected at Schemnitz by forming strong embankments in high mountain valleys, and thus creating large reservoirs, in which the winter rains and melted snows collect. Many of them are seen in the approach to the town. From these ponds the water is conducted by small canals, and falls through water-tight cast-iron pipes, erected perpendicularly in the mine-shaft. When it has fallen a certain depth (in this case about 45 fathoms) it is checked in its progress downward, and forced, by the weight of its whole column in the descending pipe, into the bottom of a perpendicular cylinder of considerable diameter, in which it raises a water-tight piston. As the piston ascends, it carries with it two bars of wood, moving perpendicularly on the outside of the cylinder, to which are attached four or more pump-rods, each working a pump at a different level; the first raising the water from the bottom to a certain height, whence it is raised one stage higher by a second, and so on, stage by stage, to the required elevation on the level of the main adit. At the moment when the piston has been forced up to a given point, it acts by a simple collateral communication upon the stop-cock, (which had been turned so as to suffer the water to enter the cylinder,)

and checks its progress downwards,—adjusts it again, so as to cut off all communication with the descending pipe,—and opens a passage through which the water contained in the cylinder is at once discharged. The piston of course descends, carrying down with it the two wooden bars connected with the pump-rods, and in the act of falling, by means of the same collateral mechanism, closes the passage through which the water was discharged from the cylinder, and opening the communication between the cylinder and the descending column of water in the pipe, permits it to enter, and by its pressure again raise the piston. In this way, this simple piece of machinery maintains itself in constant and powerful action. The ease and regularity of working is aided by a balance-beam, connected by a chain with the head of the large piston and pump-rods.

The machine is set in motion, or stopped, by turning a cock fixed in the descending pipe, by which the current of water is either permitted to pass into the machine, or its course entirely impeded. The handle of the cock is always within reach of the attending engineer. The quantity of water thrown into the cylinder is likewise regulated by it, and consequently the velocity with which the pump-rods act.

The water discharged from this engine is conveyed further into the mine, where it again serves to give motion to other machinery, until, having reached the level of the Emperor Francis's adit, it there escapes with the water which it had been the means of raising from the deepest workings.

There are now three of these engines employed to keep the mines free from water; they have not, however, been found at all times sufficient, and a fourth is now constructing. The whole quantity of water raised by the three in 24 hours

is 49,365 eimers, each eimer containing 60·811 Paris pints, or about 16 gallons.

The pipes, containing the long column of descending water, are cast in lengths of six or seven feet. They are not very firmly joined together, the joints being secured only by broad iron rings, fixed over the junction of each length by wooden wedges, which, in case of any unusual pressure of the water, are thrown out, and the pipes themselves prevented from bursting, which, if they were fastened together by flanches and screws, might sometimes happen.

Before leaving Windschacht, I was taken to the engineer's office, where numerous plans and sections of the mining district were laid before me. The whole country is intersected, at different levels, by the galleries of mines, forming one stupendous subterranean labyrinth, so well understood, however, that the exact limit of each adventurer's right is known, and the moment the ore has been traced to that boundary, the workman stops, nor may he proceed until a compact has been made with the neighbouring proprietor. Besides general maps, there were particular plans of each mine, with the most accurate surveys of all its parts.

In the afternoon, I returned to Schemnitz, having obtained a promise from Bergrath Pribila, that he would provide me with a good conductor on the following morning, in the mine called Stephani-schacht, to which he particularly recommended my attention.

The walk to Stephani-schacht, over the mountains, was exceedingly pleasant. On arriving there, I found the Ober-schatz-Meister prepared to attend me, and already dressed in his miner's habit. He received me with all possible kindness, and proposed first to explain, upon his plan, what we were to see.

Having so done, we descended in the same manner as we had the day before at Windschacht.

When arrived at a certain depth, we turned into a gallery dark and dismal, and pursued for several hours its various windings. The metal, which, when purified, presents so many attractions, even to the eye, is as yet most completely disguised by the worthless materials with which it is combined; and is not to be distinguished, by an untutored eye, from the rock, of which it forms a part. After following an irregularly excavated passage for some time, during which my guide had stopped from time to time to shew me, by the light of his lamp held up to the roof, the traces of metallic veins, we suddenly heard the hollow report of a blast of powder in the rock, within a short distance of us; the whole air was soon rendered almost unfit for respiration by the thick smoke which filled the gallery. My conductor stood for a moment, called out loudly, and having received an answer, proceeded, and, turning out of the direct course, we found a group of miners in the recess from which the report had issued. Thus we passed from place to place, falling in at intervals with parties of these workmen. They were sometimes in situations which allowed them to stand upright, but much more frequently were sitting or kneeling, or even lying on their sides, boring holes to receive powder, or working out the little veins of ore with axes, hammers, and wedges. When the ore is high up in the gallery, they construct scaffolding, on which they work.

The men are divided into companies of eight each, and are paid not only according to the quantity, but the quality of the ore they collect, so that they are themselves interested in the research; as may indeed be easily perceived by the different tone of voice in which they speak when they have hit upon a good or a bad vein. When they find any pieces particularly

rich, of which they are very accurate judges, they lay them aside in a bag, that they may not be lost in the general mass. The ore, when dug out, is placed in a small oblong box, or wheelbarrow, in which it is conveyed with wonderful rapidity and skill along narrow planks to the shaft, and is there laden into the large buckets of the machine, by which it is drawn up to the surface.

As we stood at the shaft, a bucket descended, from the chain of which, one of the men drew a piece of notched wood. A consultation was immediately held upon it. It was a note written in mining characters from their friends above ground. To me it was unintelligible. I found, however, that some of the marks were meant to inform them, that it was " half past nine " o'clock ;" and others, on the opposite side, gave orders for something which was to be sent up, and some work which was to be done below.

The rock here is clay porphyry, passing almost into grunstein. It is much harder than at Windschacht ; and is often firm enough to become a building stone. The timber used in this mine is consequently less ; and the shafts by which we ascended and descended, were only secured by a kind of strong trellis work. In some parts of the great vein, the feldspar was so predominant as to render it almost white, interspersed with distinct crystals of hornblende ; but the vein soon passed again so completely into the nature of the surrounding rock, that it was difficult to say where the one ended or the other began. At the depth of the Emperor Francis's level, which is here above seventy fathoms, my conductor pointed out to me a singular appearance. The massive porphyry is interspersed with nodules of the same substance, but much more compact than the surrounding rock ; and sometimes presenting, though indistinctly, the appearance of crystallized facets. The size of

these balls, as well as their frequency, varies in different parts, from two inches to one-tenth of an inch in diameter, in the space of a few fathoms, to which this singularity is confined. This occurs in a place where several threads of ore which intersect the gangue unite.

The direction of the great vein is from E. to W.; or, as the miners say, "they work it towards the sixth hour;" and is elevated at about an angle of 80°. It is at its greatest width at the depth of seventy fathoms; being there nearly twelve fathoms, and continues so, as far as it has been worked downwards, which is about forty fathoms lower: as it ascends towards the day, it becomes narrower, a circumstance which, I was informed, is here rather an exception than a general rule.

This is the richest vein at present worked, and yields almost one mark of silver from every centner of ore. During the last fortnight, the quantity of ore obtained had been 319 centners, and this yielded, by assay, 282 marks of fine silver. The preceding fortnight it produced 239 centners of ore, which gave 262 marks of fine silver. At a former period, this mine, in the course of twenty-eight years, produced half a million of marks of pure silver.

In working such large veins, it is found necessary to begin from below and go upwards, and to fill up, as much as possible, as the miners ascend; for, were they to begin from above, there would be no place in which to deposit the unproductive matter, a prodigious mass of superincumbent rock would keep the workmen in perpetual danger, and, by falling down, might put a stop to all proceedings in the mine.

Having now observed the mode in which the ore is collected and raised to the surface, and the means by which they free

the mine of water, I will follow the ore to the operations which it afterwards undergoes.

When brought from the mine, it is carried to a building where men, women, and children, sitting at tables, select the rich ore from the poor, break it into pieces about the size of hazel nuts, and sort it, according to its worth, into different parcels. The value of these heaps is then ascertained by an assay, and the pay of the workmen regulated by the product. This is estimated on the number of half ounces or *loths* of silver contained in the *centner*, or hundred and ten pounds of ore, and this varies from the minutest quantity to one hundred loths or more. If it contains above two loths, it goes immediately to the smelting works; but if it be poorer, it is previously submitted to the Pochwerk or stampers, where it is pounded and washed, and the most valuable particles concentrated.

The process at the Pochwerk is nearly as follows:—The ores are thrown by small quantities into a long trough, through which a gentle stream of water is constantly running. A row of stampers, perhaps twenty-four in number, alternately raised by cogs, placed spirally round a cylinder which moves behind them, fall perpendicularly, and in constant succession, upon the ore so placed in the trough. The water passing through the trough, carries with it the small particles separated by the operation of the stampers on the ore, and being conducted through a number of small winding channels, has time to deposit them before it runs finally away; the smallest being suspended till they reach the extremity of the canals, whilst the larger are deposited sooner. The whole is then easily separated according to its fineness and weight, and is taken to a set of inclined planes, each about ten feet long, by four broad, having boards, set edge-ways, at their sides. Above each is a trough, in which the ore is put, and into which, a gentle

stream of water is made to fall, and, passing on, carries with it the pounded ore, and, running softly down the inclined plane, over the whole surface of which it is spread, deposits the particles equally; but, being nearly uniform in size, those which are left nearest the top are the richest. During the whole time a man stands by, and with an instrument of wood, like a rake without teeth, gently moves the surface of the last deposited matter, that it may thus again be exposed to the action of the water, and any of the lighter particles may still make their escape. When the quantity collected on these inclined planes covers the whole about eight inches deep, it is divided into three parts, that which is nearest the top being the richest, that at the bottom the poorest. The whole is then removed with shovels into three separate heaps, and each undergoes the same process three times. The different portions are now again submitted to the assay,—the richest are sometimes found to contain six or eight loths the centner, and if any is so poor as not to contain two, it is carried back to be mixed with the ore under the stampers, but the richer parcels go to the smelting house.

Ores which are so disguised by clay, as to prevent the sorters from judging of their value, are, previous to their undergoing the before mentioned processes, thrown into troughs, having gratings in their bottom of different degrees of fineness. They are here kept in constant motion by women who use wooden shovels for the purpose, whilst a stream of water, running over the ore, washes the smaller pieces, together with the dirt, through the first grating into the next, and so on through several troughs, by which the whole become separated according to size, the water finally carrying off all the earth and finer particles. But this is not suffered to run to waste. It is conducted through a long succession of canals, where it forms

its deposits, as in the Pochwerk. The larger pieces are then returned to the sorters, and classed with the other ores. But the smaller pieces are separated by putting them in sieves, which are repeatedly plunged into water. The water penetrates from below, and as the displaced fragments of ore again subside, the heaviest, and generally the richest, fall to the bottom. This being several times repeated, the sorters are enabled to make a tolerably correct division, by removing with a shovel the upper half, that which remains being retained as valuable.

The greater part of the ores at Schemnitz contain a large proportion of lead, some copper, with sulphur, arsenic, and other minerals, and a small proportion only of silver. These are smelted in the furnaces which are erected upon the spot, but those which contain a larger proportion of silver, are taken to the silver furnaces at Kremnitz.

The works which I visited near Schemnitz are denominated Lead Furnaces, although their object is not to obtain the lead except in combination with the silver and gold, and as a means of procuring these precious metals.

The ores having, by the operations of the Pochwerk, been separated from a large part of their earthy impurities, are roasted, in order to drive off the arsenic, sulphur, and other volatile matters. This is done either in open furnaces, in which it is piled in alternate layers with wood, or in reverberatory furnaces in which only a moderate degree of heat is kept up. This roasted ore is then removed to a blast furnace, the bellows of which are worked by water. It is here mixed in layers with charcoal and various slags and scoria of former processes, all of which contain more or less lead, and contribute to the easy and perfect fusion of the ores. The heat in the furnace having, by the constant working of the bellows, been greatly raised; at the end of a given period, if the process is found to be

perfected, an opening is made in the lowest part, or eye of the furnace, by piercing a stopper made of clay and charcoal powder, with which the aperture had been closed when the furnace was charged. Through this opening the liquified metal which had collected in the bottom of the furnace runs into a circular cavity or bed formed of charcoal and clay. This fluid metal consists of the lead, to which the silver and the gold, if any, have a strong attraction, and are intimately united, and of copper, and any other metallic substance, such as iron, that may have been combined with the ores, and have not been oxydated in the furnace. As the lead containing the silver remains fluid at a much lower temperature than copper, the latter separates with the other impurities, and quickly forms a porous crust or slag upon the surface, which is removed by tongs as soon as it acquires the thickness of half an inch. This is repeated till these crusts cease to collect, when the lead holding the silver and gold remains in the bed nearly free from any alloy of copper. What little still remains, is afterwards separated by submitting the metallic mass to a heat sufficient to melt the lead, but leave the copper. The ingots are then removed to the silver furnaces, of which there are three, one at Schemnitz, one at Schernovitz, and one at Neusohl, each ingot having been previously most accurately assayed. This is likewise done in respect to each parcel of the rich ores which are sent raw to either of these silver works.

The slags which have been removed from the surface of the lead in these processes are often very rich in copper, some containing as much as 100 loths in a centner. They are all removed to the copper works at Altgebirg, near Neusohl, to be refined.

These being the whole of the operations which are conducted at Schemnitz, neither pure silver nor gold ever makes its

appearance there, except in the small quantities produced in the laboratory from the assays.

The footing upon which the mining school or college of Schemnitz is conducted is very liberal. It is a Royal foundation, and every one who has first obtained permission from the Board of Mines (*das Berg-und Münzwesen*) at Vienna, which I believe is never refused; may have the full benefit of all the lectures, and all the practical knowledge which these extensive mines are calculated to afford. The complete course of study occupies three years, and those who wish to obtain certificates, such as are required to entitle them to seek for employment as officers of the mines, must go through regular and severe examinations. The lectures are on chemistry, mineralogy, mathematics, mechanics, and other branches of natural philosophy—drawing of plans, maps, and machinery, &c. also on botany, and the knowledge connected with the cultivation and preservation of forests, and the conversion and application of timber; a science which the Germans call *Forstwissenchaft*, and which is of great importance in these countries, which depend upon their forests for fuel, and more especially in mining districts, where so much valuable timber is necessarily consumed in the construction of machines and mine shafts, and in the support and preservation of the galleries and communications under ground. The students have besides the free use of the laboratory, and constant access to every thing which is going on in the mines, and in the various works connected with them, and with the preparation and smelting of the ores. They have likewise permission to form collections of minerals to any extent for their own use, but they are prohibited, under the pain of expulsion, from extracting the metals, and applying the produce to profit. The students generally form themselves into as-

sociations of two or three, for the purpose of carrying on their chemical and metallurgic processes in the laboratory with greater care and advantage; and I was much pleased when Professor D'Höring one day pointed out to me various repositories appropriated to each, for placing away the apparatus, and every article necessary for conducting these experiments and assays, the whole of which are provided for them by the public fund.

The number of students at this college varies a good deal, and at present, owing to the general and long continued disorder in public affairs, is at a low ebb,—it seldom, however, falls short of from 200 to 300. Many go regularly through the whole course, but others attend only the lectures which are connected with their particular pursuits.

After I had made myself acquainted with the chief objects of interest at Schemnitz, I set off in a calash at an early hour in the morning for Kremnitz. The road, which was now covered with ice, conducted us over a snowy mountain, from which we descended into a valley of wide extent to the left, with woods on the right, through which we sometimes passed, affording a continual and beautiful variety of prospect. After a few hours drive, we arrived at Glas-Hutte. Here are warm-baths much frequented during the summer, particularly by officers of Government, and Hungarian nobles. The Bishop of Tyrnau annually spends some months here. The whole place consists of only six or eight houses, all of which have either baths attached to them, or are intended for the reception of visitors. The Kaiser's Bad, or Emperor's Bath, is the best, although the accommodations are mean and uncomfortable. Yet, as the vicinity is picturesque, and the mineralogy immediately around Glas-Hutte is rendered interesting by a hill of pitch-stone, and some minerals, which bear strong analogy

to volcanic products, it is, independently of its vicinity to the mining towns, a most desirable residence during a few weeks in the summer, for persons attached to geological pursuits. Warm springs rise on both sides of the stream which runs along the valley. They are chalybeate, and leave a strong ocherous incrustation on the pipes through which the water is conducted. The road, winding along the valley, is broken and rocky till it opens upon a plain about half a mile wide, and three miles in length, nearly surrounded by high mountains.

We now turned to the right, and, pursuing this plain in its longest direction, arrived at Szent Kereszt (Holy Cross), situated on its boundary; having previously crossed a wooden bridge over the Gran, which is here become a very considerable river. Although Szent Kereszt is a bishop's residence, it is but a small village, and the large square palace rises like a giant amidst the diminutive cottages. The only room at the inn for travellers was the common-chamber, fitted up with long wooden tables and benches round the sides, and well warmed by a large stove. There several peasants come to rest themselves, and, while some broth was preparing for me, I went to see the palace. The internal arrangements do not equal its external appearance. The rooms are dark and low, and meanly furnished. The walls are thinly covered with plans of churches in tarnished frames, and badly executed portraits of popes and bishops. The house was uninhabited, the bishop having been dead for above two years; and government seems to be of opinion, that 80,000 florins, annually, is a revenue too convenient, under the present state of the finances, to be hastily given up by the nomination of a new bishop. The late incumbent is represented as having been fond of good company, good eating, and the other good things in which laymen delight. One evening, while in the act of taking off his coat, after a jo-

vial supper, he suddenly expired. I returned to the inn, and, as I took my broth and sour-crout, the door opened, and a dozen young men in cloaks, and with instruments of husbandry in their hands, came into the room with a decently dressed man, who appeared to have full command over them. This, upon inquiry, I found to be a band of peasants who were brought here from the garden of the palace by a Heiduck, or overseer, to eat their dinners, it being now twelve o'clock. They were cheerful,—but it was the cheerfulness of boys under the eye of their master,—and there was something disagreeable in that appearance of timorous, yet rebellious, subordination, which seemed to say—This is hard—but it must be so.

Soon after leaving Szent-Kereszt, and having crossed a stream, we passed a hill near the village of Alt Kremnitz, upon the sides of which I observed basaltic columns. The road was far from being interesting, and at last the postillion, with pleasure, pointed out the mountain, on the other side of which we were to find Kremnitz. At this town we arrived at four o'clock, and, trusting to those we met, were led to believe, that the Crown was the best inn the place afforded; it certainly does no credit to the town. I had my choice either of a large low room, with chandeliers hanging from the roof, and an orchestra fitted for a ball-room, dirty, mean, and desolate; or a little apartment with one window, opening, as the door likewise did, on a wooden gallery, constructed on the outside of the house, and looking into a dirty back-yard,—the furniture, a bed-stead like a box, an old oak table, and a broken chair. I fixed myself in the latter, after bargaining, however, for a curtain, to exclude the curious eyes of those who passed along the gallery. Having prepared for the night, I waited upon the Bergrath Körper, the master of the mint, to whom I had letters. Nothing could exceed the polite kindness with

which he received me, and, before we parted, he promised to conduct me through the mint early on the following morning. I then went to make myself acquainted with the situation of the town before the evening closed.

Kremnitz is situated, like Schemnitz, in the midst of mountains; but the valley into which it looks is far more wide and open. The town is much smaller, and has altogether a very forsaken air. It consists, within the walls, of thirty-three houses, one of which is the Mint. They are arranged round an open space where the market is held. There are some streets, and many detached houses, without the walls; and, at the distance of about a quarter of a mile in the valley, are situated the silver furnaces. Kremnitz has four churches, one of which is more gaudy in its internal ornaments than any I have seen. German is the prevailing language, as a great proportion of the inhabitants are of German origin. There seemed to be much real suffering amongst the people, who were then badly paid for their labour, both in the mines and at the mint; and, as a great many were out of employ, the streets and the lanes of the suburbs were infested with miserable beggars. Complaints were made that every thing was dreadfully dear; yet they asked me in the market only three florins, fifteen kreutzers (that is, about three shillings), for a Pressburg metze of oats, equal to two Winchester bushels,—for Hungarian tobacco, in the leaf, twenty-five florins the centner. Nevertheless, I found, from my communications with the principal officers of the works, from whom I received much friendly hospitality and information, that there was great ground for these complaints; and that even they themselves, from the irregularity with which their salaries were paid, and the advance in price on every thing at Kremnitz, were obliged to adopt many economical contrivances. They had laid in stores of necessaries direct from Vienna, which

the return of the waggons going every month thither with the coin struck at the mint, enabled them to do. There is something very peculiar in this place; so secluded as to seem almost out of the sphere of society and information, yet the seat of important science and most valuable practical knowledge. It will scarcely be conceived possible that an officer, connected with the most celebrated source of gold and silver in Europe, should still believe that Mexico is an English island, and that other clever and agreeable persons could scarcely be convinced that coffee, and sugar, and rice, are not the products of Great Britain. Yet these are facts. According to my appointment, I visited the mint the next morning; but I shall deviate a little from the regular order, by first detailing the preparatory processes which I afterwards saw.

It will be remembered, that the silver at Schemnitz was left, some in the state of rich ore, and some after it had undergone the process by which it was concentrated in the metal which had issued from the lead furnaces. The greater part is sent here, but some to Neusohl and Schernovitz, to be resmelted with the ores of this neighbourhood, which contain a much larger proportion of gold; and the metals are here finally separated and refined.

Each parcel of ore, and every ingot of metal, before it is delivered to the furnaces, is again assayed by the proper officer, in the following manner:

From each parcel of ore a certain number of ounces are taken in such a way as will give an average sample of the whole. This is heated to drive off all the moisture, and then reduced in an iron mortar to a fine powder;—a known quantity of this is put into a small crucible, and to it is added about twice its weight of pure lead, in grains of the size of small shot, and known to contain no silver. If, however, it be very

refractory, a mixture of one part borax, and two of glass of lead, or the vitreous slag of former assays, is added to facilitate the fusion. The crucibles, thus charged, are so arranged in the furnace, that no mistake can arise respecting the parcel to which each assay belongs. A strong heat is then raised in the furnace, which is continued until the fusion is complete. They are then taken out, and when cold, by a few blows on an anvil, the vitreous matter or slag which surrounds the whole contents of the crucible is broken off, and a button of lead retaining the silver is found. This button is placed in a small vessel or cupel, made of bone ashes, and again submitted, under a muffle, to a considerable heat, by which the whole is melted, and the lead being completely oxydated, is absorbed by the cupel, a little shining pearl of silver alone remaining, from the weight of which the whole of this precious metal contained in the parcel of ore is calculated. By a similar process, the richness in silver of the ingots is likewise ascertained.

The silver, in both cases, contains gold, the quantity of which is still to be determined. This is effected by placing it in small flasks or retorts of glass, and pouring upon it twice its weight of nitric acid, which being exposed in a sand-bath to a gentle heat, the silver is completely dissolved, and the gold falls down in powder. This precipitate is carefully washed, and put into a small conical crucible fitted with a cover; a gentle heat is applied, and the pure gold remains in a spongy mass at the bottom. The solution is then evaporated to collect the silver. This mode of assay differs but little from the processes used in respect to the ores and metal in the gross.

The first part of the operations used on the ores is similar to that at Schemnitz. When the fusion is complete, and the metal is let out of the furnace into the circular bed prepared for it in the ground, ingots of lead, rich in silver, are conti-

nually added as long as they will melt and unite, the crusts of slag being removed as they form on the surface. In this way, a mass of metal is obtained, holding 30, 40, or even 50 loths of silver in the centner, which is then laded into flat moulds to cool. These are assayed previously to their being placed in a reverberatory furnace fitted with a large iron cover suspended by chains, by which it is elevated and lowered at the will of the operator; and a brisk flame being made to play over the metal, the lead is quickly oxydated on its surface; this is removed, and a new surface being exposed to the action of the flame and air, the same is repeated until nothing remains on the sand forming the bottom of the furnace, except the silver holding gold, which is taken out by ladles, and poured into ingot moulds. This precious alloy is thence removed to the laboratory adjoining the mint, to undergo the operation of "*parting*," or the separation of the gold from the silver.

The ingots are here melted down, and the metal, whilst fluid, poured into water, by which it is granulated or divided into almost leaf-like pieces, which are in appearance exceedingly beautiful. These being dried, are put into large glass retorts, externally well luted. Nine marks are placed in each vessel, with about twice that weight, or somewhat less, of nitric acid, of the specific gravity of 1·20, previously purified of any combined sulphuric or muriatic acid it might contain, by dissolving in it a portion of perfectly pure silver. These retorts are placed in a sand-bath, with receivers properly fitted to collect any acid fumes which may pass over. The silver is in this process entirely taken up by the nitric acid, forming a clear solution, which, being decanted off, leaves as a residuum the gold, in the state of protoxyd, having the appearance of a brown powder. This, when collected in a crucible, and ex-

posed to a low heat, assumes its yellow colour, but without metallic lustre, the particles adhering but slightly together. It being, however, perfectly pure, nothing further is necessary than to fuse and cast it into ingots.

The transparent solution of silver in the nitric acid is now poured into retorts, standing in the sand-bath, and being gently heated, is distilled over into receivers, in a fit state to be employed in fresh solutions, leaving the silver in a sponge-like metallic form, chiefly at the bottom, but likewise adhering in a thin coat to the sides of the retort, without lustre, but beautifully white. Fresh quantities of the solution are then poured into the retorts, and the distillations repeated until they are nearly half full of dry nitrate of silver; a considerably greater heat is then applied, in order to decompose the metallic salt. The retorts are then broken, and their contents, with the adhering pieces of glass, and a portion of black flux run down in black lead crucibles, and the silver cast into ingots.

The laboratory is of great extent. Five or six banks of sand, for so they may well be called from their size, extend across the chamber, beneath which the fire is conducted in flues; and upon the whole extent, processes of solution and evaporation are constantly going on. Here are also all the furnaces and apparatus necessary for performing the several operations before-mentioned.

Both gold and silver, in their greatest degree of purity, are found too soft for circulation in coin; before, therefore, they are made into money, the standard is reduced by the addition of alloy, either of silver or copper, to give the necessary degree of hardness and durability. In the inferior silver coins, much more is added to increase their weight and dimensions, as well as for other sufficient, and, perhaps, not less obvious, reasons. In the Austrian pieces of twenty kreutzers,

there are only nine loths, thirteen grains of silver, to five loths, six grains of copper. In the gold coins, however, the proportion of alloy is exceedingly small. A ducat weighing 53·85 grains, containing only 0·56 grains of copper, with 53·29 of gold; and, according to the ancient standard, even not more than one-third of this small quantity; and yet this has such a perceptible effect, that it is necessary to procure for this alloy the purest and most malleable copper which can be obtained from other mines, the copper of Kremnitz not being found sufficiently so for this purpose. Copper, as an alloy to gold, makes the coin much harder, and less liable to wear than silver, which is the alloy used in the ducats of Holland.

The silver having been melted in combination with copper, as its alloy, is cast in moulds of iron, the sides of which are kept together by a clamp and screw, and which are placed erect in iron sockets; into bars nearly two feet long, two inches thick, and four inches wide. These bars are drawn out between iron rollers, after frequent repetitions of heating in a furnace, and rolling, to a given thickness, by which they are greatly extended in length, but little increased in width. After each time of passing the roller, the silver is plunged into cold water.

A screw-press is then used to stamp out the blanks of the required size, which having been previously dipped in a dilute acid to restore their colour, are separately weighed.

The impress on the edge is next made by a small hand instrument, placed horizontally, consisting of a circular plate, moveable by a handle on its centre within an external fixed ring, leaving a space between the two equal to the diameter of the blank to be milled. On a portion of this external circle, corresponding in measure to the circumference of the piece, the device intended to be impressed is cut or fixed. The blank is placed in the intervening space, and by

moving the plate, which presses tightly upon it, the piece is made to describe a complete revolution round its own axis; and moving in close contact with the outer ring, receives the impression on its edge.

In order to complete the coin, nothing now remains but to stamp these pieces with their proper dies. This is done by means of powerful fly screw-presses, such as are generally made use of for the purpose; and are so constantly employed in various processes of our hardware and plating manufactures at Birmingham and Sheffield, that they need not be described.

The method used in the gold coinage is precisely the same. The whole, both gold and silver coins, are again separately weighed, packed, and sent to the treasury at Vienna for circulation; but certainly not at this time for general use, as none were to be met with in common currency.

For inspecting and counting the copper coins, they have a ready expedient. Trays, having their bottoms indented with one or two hundred hollows, are filled with money; and, being shaken, each hollow receives a piece. The rest are swept out; the known number being at one view inspected, the tray is overturned into the proper receptacle, and is instantly ready to receive a fresh supply.

With respect to the quantities of gold and silver which have been obtained by the government from the mines of this district, and coined at Kremnitz, Delius, in his work upon mining, has calculated, that, from the year 1672 to 1680, the single royal mine of Piberstollen at Schemnitz gave 427,600 marks of silver, and 2657 marks of gold. In 1690, the gold from Schemnitz amounted to a little more than 1872 marks coined into 132,425 ducats. In 1779, 2429 marks of gold, and 92,267 of silver, were brought to the mint from the whole district. And by a statement published at Vienna in the *Vaterländische*

Blätter of 1808, it appears that the whole produce of the mines of Upper Hungary, between the years 1797 and 1806, amounted to 16821 marks 4 loth. 29 dr. 27 gr. of Gold,
658519 0 52 19 of Silver,
135443 centner 83 pfunds of Lead;
The whole value in the currency of the country being 16,728,368 fl. 22 kr.; but I am not quite certain what mines are included in this estimate.

From the work of Delius, published in 1773, I extract the following passage:

"In the territories of the Austrian Monarchy, which throughout contain most extensive mineral districts, there is no more certain way of increasing the wealth of the state than by encouraging the mines. For as here not only gold and silver, but also a number of other products, may be obtained from the bowels of the earth, of which many other countries, on account of their natural situation, and circumstances, are in want, they would be obliged to take our produce from us, nor can any such impediments be placed in our way, as may be the case with respect to most manufactured articles. And that this statement is strictly correct, I will now proceed to shew.

"Since the year 1740, nearly 100,000,000 guldens of gold and silver have been obtained from the mines of Schemnitz and Kremnitz, and coined at Kemnitz, as may be seen by the accounts kept at the mines. In Transylvania and Nagybanien, during the same period, about 50,000,000 guldens of gold and silver have been produced; and, consequently, the kingdom of Hungary, and the other Austrian states through which this money has been circulated, have, during the thirty-two years of our Queen Maria Theresa's reign, become richer by 150,000,000 guldens, without reckoning that gold and silver which has been yielded by the mines of Bohemia,

Styria, and the Tyrol, which amounts to a considerable sum. And still 3,000,000 guldens of gold and silver at least come yearly from Schemnitz, Kremnitz, and Transylvania, which is there coined, enriching Hungary and Transylvania from year to year. Such, then, is the wealth of the country derived from the two noble metals, gold and silver, alone, but we likewise procure, in the Austrian monarchy, almost all the other metals, semi-metals, and minerals, which are to be found in nature. Copper, tin, lead, iron, quicksilver, antimony, cobalt, and other products of the mineral kingdom, are yielded in the richest abundance in our mines. With these we are enabled, not only to satisfy the wants and consumption of the whole monarchy, so that no money need be sent out of the country for any of these articles, but a most important branch of our commerce consists in the export of these mineral riches, with which we, in part, supply most of the countries of Europe, receiving, in return, many indispensable articles; and, consequently, we can so adjust our commerce with other countries, that, if we are not able to procure a balance in our favour, we are at least enabled to maintain an equilibrium.

" Into Hungary and the Banat of Temeswar alone, at least one million flows yearly, on account of the copper obtained from the mines; and the iron which is annually manufactured in the Austrian provinces, partly consumed at home, and partly exported, amounts to above 4,000,000 guldens,—not to speak of the rich quicksilver works of Idria, the tin and cobalt of Bohemia, and the lead of different provinces. It is easy to perceive, that if, from a want of mines, we were obliged to purchase all these articles from other countries, a large sum of money must be expended. But, owing to our flourishing mines, not only all such demands upon the state are

spared, but we export these articles to the amount of many millions."

During some years, the process of Amalgamation was in use for extracting the gold and silver from the ores obtained in the mines of this district, but has latterly been abandoned, the operation of smelting in the manner described being found better suited to the nature of these ores. The practice is, however, continued in other mineral countries; and, as the details are curious, I shall here insert an extract upon that subject from the notes I made at the Quick Mills, or amalgamation works at Halsbrück, near Freyberg, in Saxony, when visiting that most distinguished seat of mineralogical science.

The operation of amalgamation was first used in the mines of South America, where it was introduced between the years 1560 and 1570. There, however, the process was at first conducted in a very imperfect manner, and was attended with a great loss of mercury as well as silver. In that country it underwent successive modifications and improvements; and it was there first discovered that a very effectual method of conducting it was by boiling the mercury and the ore together in water.

Although proposals had been more than once made to the Court of Austria, it was not till 1784 that the method of extracting silver by the aid of mercury was adopted in Europe, at which time Baron Born was authorized to make extensive trial of its efficacy in the mines of Hungary. The process, as established by him at Glashutte, near Schemnitz, and afterwards introduced into the other mines of Hungary, Transylvania, and Bohemia, was in substance very nearly that which is employed at Freyberg, except that, for some time, the formation of the amalgam took place under the influence of heat,

the mixture being put into copper boilers in the form of an inverted cone, rounded at the bottom, and open at the top, in which an instrument was made constantly to revolve, thus keeping the whole in agitation, while a very moderate heat was applied under the boilers; and, this process having been continued from ten to twenty hours, according to the nature of the ore, the whole of the silver was found to be disengaged from the ore, and taken up by the mercury. Baron Born made many attempts to conduct this part of the process without the assistance of fire; but it was Gellert who first perfectly succeeded; and of his success the very complete machinery of Freyberg was the result. From many comparative calculations and experiments which have been made, it has appeared that the saving in the consumption of wood and in the lead wasted by the common processes of smelting and refining is so great, that ores of silver and gold, which are of a nature fitted for this process, can be worked at nearly half the expence by amalgamation; and it is satisfactory to be assured, that the mercury, so far from producing the deleterious effects upon the health of the workmen, which were at first dreaded, is, in fact, by no means so hurtful as the heat and fumes which are to be encountered in the usual operations of the smelting furnace.

The process now used at Halsbrück is as follows: The ores, after having been sorted, stamped, and washed in a manner similar to that which has been described, are brought in separate lots to the mills, where each lot is sampled with much care. These samples are divided; the one part is assayed by the assay-master of the mine from which the ore was brought, the other by the officers of the works,—a very necessary check to prevent errors, and more particularly in this case, as the amalgam works belong to government, whilst many of the mines are worked by companies of individuals.

The ores are then appropriated either for the operations of the furnace or of amalgamation, according to their qualities, those being chosen for the latter which are the most free from an intermixture of lead and copper; and preference is likewise given to ores which yield from three to four ounces of silver in the centner, it being found, by experience, that such are best fitted for this process. The different parcels, the produce of which has been ascertained by assay, are therefore so mixed, that the whole may average about this proportion. To this ore is added one-tenth of its weight of muriate of soda, finely sifted. This mixture is then parcelled out, in heaps of three or four hundred weight each, upon the floor of a chamber, over the reverberatory furnaces, in which it is to be roasted. Here it is dried for some hours, and is then passed down a pipe which communicates with the furnace below, over the bottom of which it is spread by means of an iron rabble or rake. The fire, which is of wood, and a mixture of coal and clay, is contained in a division of the furnace separate from that which receives the ore, with which it is connected only by a large aperture, through which the flame and heat pass into the vaulted compartment containing the ore, and out at the chimney erected over the other end of the furnace. By this means a high degree of heat is given to the ore, without any contact with the fuel; and the sulphur and other volatile matters which arise from it are speedily carried off. The workman attending the furnace keeps the ore in a constant agitation with his iron rake, to prevent its adhering together into hard lumps, especially when it becomes red hot, and, by changing the surface, more regularly to expose the whole to the operation of the flame and heat. This is continued, and the red heat maintained for three or four hours, until there are no longer any signs of sulphur remaining in the ore. The whole is then withdrawn from the

furnace. During this operation, a decomposition of the muriate of soda has taken place, the acid forming new combinations with the earthy parts and the oxyds of the imperfect metals, and the soda with the sulphur which had not been expelled by the heat, whereby the union of the silver is rendered much less intimate with the substances from which it is to be separated.

The calcined ore, as it is taken from the furnace, is put, when cooled, in boxes, which are raised by a crane, worked by water, into an upper story, where it is sifted, and all the pieces which have caked together are separated from the rest. The cakes are broken, and, being again mixed with a small portion of salt, are once more roasted, but the finer parts which have passed the sieve are conveyed down by pipes into the mills, where they are ground to an almost impalpable powder. These mills, of which there are several, are all turned by water; the millstones are of granite.

When thus prepared, the ore is carried in barrows to a chamber, where twenty chests present themselves, arranged in rows of five each. These stand immediately over corresponding vessels or barrels, in which, in the room below, the amalgamation is to be effected, and which barrels are charged from the chests by means of moveable pipes.

It is now that the important part of the process takes place. The twenty barrels are arranged in four rows, each turning on its separate axis by a motion communicated by a water-wheel to two long shafts, each shaft passing between two rows of the barrels, and furnished with cog-wheels, working in others fixed on the axis of each barrel, but from which either barrel may be detached at pleasure, and its motion stopped, without impeding the rest.

Each of these barrels is charged with ten hundred weight of

the pulverized ore, about three hundred weight of water, and a small quantity of sheet-iron, which is added for the purpose of decomposing any muriate of silver which may have been formed during the process of roasting, and to prevent the subsequent formation of any muriate of mercury.

A gentle rotatory motion is communicated to the barrels for about an hour, to mix their contents intimately. Five hundred weight of quicksilver is then added to each, and the motion of the barrels accelerated to the rate of nearly twenty revolutions in a minute, and this is continued for sixteen hours. When, by assay, it is found that the separation of the silver is complete, the whole having formed an amalgam with the mercury, and none being left in union with the earthy parts or metallic oxyds; the barrels are entirely filled with water, and they are set in motion again for about an hour, but with much less velocity, that the amalgam may separate completely from the rest of the mass, and be allowed to subside. The amalgam is then drawn off from the lowest side of the barrels, and conveyed along wooden channels to vessels prepared in another chamber to receive it. The remaining matter is washed from the barrels into reservoirs.

The amalgam and surplus mercury, which flow away together, are put into leathern bags, which, being pressed, suffer the uncombined quicksilver to pass through the pores, leaving the amalgam, containing about one-eighth of its weight of silver, in the form of a paste, composed of silvery globules.

The washings of the barrels, which are collected in four large reservoirs, are kept in a continued agitation, during which the mercury which remained entangled with the refuse subsides, and, as this takes place, the upper strata of the water are successively removed, till the mercury and amalgam, if any, alone remain. This generally occupies about eight hours.

This mercury and amalgam is, of course, added to the rest, and from the liquor the sulphate of soda is afterwards obtained.

It remains now to collect the silver, which is thus concentrated in the amalgam, by driving off the mercury. For this purpose a furnace of mason-work, of a peculiar construction, is employed. A tripod of iron is placed within it, which, standing in a vessel of water, supports an upright bar of about three feet in height, at the upper part of which are arranged five iron saucers, holding portions of the amalgam. The whole of this is covered by a bell of cast iron, which descends into the water. An annular iron plate or shelf is then applied round the bell, externally, at about half its height, and on this shelf a fire of turf is kindled. The door of the furnace is then closed, and the flame plays round the upper part of the bell till the whole of that portion of it which surrounds the vessels or saucers containing the amalgam becomes strongly heated. The distillation of the mercury then takes place, it rises in fumes, which, falling, condense in the lower part of the bell and the vessel of water beneath. In about eight hours the whole of the mercury is separated, the furnace is suffered to cool, and the silver (containing, however, some metallic impurities, particularly copper), is found forming beautiful spongy cakes in the iron saucers. This is afterwards melted and refined in the furnaces adjoining to the amalgam works, where much of the richer ores, and the produce of that which, containing large proportions of other metals, had been reduced in the blast-furnaces, is likewise melted and refined.

The operation, of which I have now given a sketch, is undoubtedly the most interesting object which Freyberg and its neighbourhood affords. The process of amalgamation, in itself so curious, is there more extensively and better performed, than in any other part of Europe.

Sketched by P. G. Engraved by J. Pye

THE WORKS FOR EXTRACTING SILVER, FROM THE ORE BY AMALGAMATION AT HALSBRÜCK, NEAR FREYBERG.

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In Hungary, where it was first introduced by Baron Born, it has, as I have before mentioned, been relinquished, not having been found precisely suitable to the ores of that country, chiefly on account of the very mixed nature of their contents. At Freyberg, however, it is held in high estimation, and the great simplicity to which the process is now reduced, renders it a very striking object of curiosity.

From Kremnitz, it was much my wish to proceed to Neusohl, to make myself acquainted with the mode of conducting the copper-works; and, more particularly, the manner of separating the precious metals which are combined with the copper, obtained from the ores of Herrengründ, and the other mines in that district; but circumstances obliged me to return to Schemnitz, which I regret. I shall, however, in the appendix to this volume, endeavour to compensate for the omission.

Before I left Kremnitz, I waited upon the Bergrath Körper, to thank him for the facilities which he had afforded me in obtaining information respecting every thing under his direction. He was busily employed in ascertaining the quantity of gold contained in some ingots of metal, yet he insisted on accompanying me to the inn, to pay his respects to me at my lodging, which he blamed himself for not having done before. We found the carriage at the door. Before he quitted my room, he saluted me on both cheeks; a compliment frequent on the continent, but which an Englishman can with difficulty bring himself to return.

I took a route different from that by which I had arrived at Kremnitz, but snow was falling, and the day was so melancholy, that I could not enjoy the variety. Not long after leaving Kremnitz, a mountain valley brought us to the river Gran; it is here of considerable width, and was now full of turbid water rushing down from the mountains. The banks

are high and well wooded, but not precipitous or rocky. We saw two or three bridges, over one of which we crossed the river. It was firmly built of timber, the piers of frame work filled with large stones. Following a rivulet, the banks of which were mountainous and wooded, we arrived at Busca, a single inn, where the horses were fed. In the common room some women were sitting on a bench round the stove spinning with the distaff, and a few peasants and country travellers were resting themselves. The rain had taken the natural curl out of their long hair, which hung like half untwisted ropes over their faces. This, with their filthy clothes and huge boots, gave them a most uncouth appearance, though by no means unsuited to the large open chamber, without any other furniture than two rough tables and some ill made benches, in which we met together.

The usual tranquillity of a Hungarian country inn pervaded our little assemblage; no one spoke but in a low voice. It was very unlike the boisterous revelry of an English alehouse. The people here are poor, and wine, their common beverage, is exceedingly dear. Nearly fivepence a bottle was charged for such as I drank with my bread and eggs. On entering a room of this kind in Hungary, there is seldom any curiosity excited to know who you are, or what you want; and it frequently happens, that travellers rest themselves, and then pursue their journey, without calling, or being expected to call, for any thing to eat or drink. As I was on the point of setting out, perceiving a person of respectable appearance, who was waiting an opportunity of conveyance to Schemnitz, I offered him a place in my carriage. He was an inhabitant of Schemnitz, but as he unfortunately spoke very little German, our conversation proceeded with difficulty, and a few Sclavonian words formed the chief information I obtained from him. The country continued its mountainous cha-

racter the whole way. In several places the exposed surface of the rocks assumed the columnar appearance of basalt, and many rocky masses were composed of a conglomerate or tuff.

On my arrival at Schemnitz, I resumed the lodgings I had before occupied, where I remained some days, during which time I had the pleasure of cultivating an acquaintance with Graf Bresler, a gentleman of Saxony, from whose extensive information I profited much; and of forming an intimacy with some of the Professors of the College.

CHAPTER VI.

Leave Schemnitz.—Maroth.—Sagh.—Cyganis.—Description of Country.—Jews.—Waitzen.—Extensive Plain.—Debretzin.—Pesth.—Buda, or Ofen.—Theatres.—Fair at Pesth.—Weights and Measures.—Manufactures.—Attempts to cultivate Sugar, Cotton, Coffee, &c.—Produce of the Land.—Canals.—Commerce.—Exports and Imports.—Libraries.—Museum.—Coals, Salt, &c.—Hospital.—Botanic Garden.—New Observatory.—Baths.—Police.—Historical Sketch of Pesth and Buda.—Komorn.—Raab.

At eight o'clock in the morning, I finally left Schemnitz, having previously agreed with the proprietor of a calash to convey me in three days to Pesth. We soon passed the house of a *magnat* or nobleman, the chief of the Hungarian chancery in Vienna. It was a large pile of buildings in the form of a

hollow square, with eighteen windows on each side, and three stories high, besides the garrets. Near it was scattered a village of mean houses, the frames of which were timber, the open spaces being filled with closely beaten clay. The whole country was diversified by gentle acclivities, and covered with wood. This kind of scenery accompanied the road a considerable distance, forming a valley, in the middle of which flows the river Schemnitz, along whose banks our road lay. At ten o'clock we came to Maroth, a common Hungarian village, the property of the bishop of Tyrnau. The old lady at the inn attempted to amuse me, but unfortunately she spoke no German. Her son had been a clergyman, and she had picked up a few words of Latin; with these we contrived to maintain some kind of conversation, which, if not as instructive, was perhaps more entertaining than if we had possessed the means of expressing ourselves fluently. The good lady was herself an Hungarian, almost the only one of that nation in the whole village. Here, in the very heart of Hungary, none but Sclavonians and Cyganis are to be found. While the horses were feeding, I obtained for myself eggs, brown bread, and brandy, all the product of the place; for the keeper of the little inn distils every week a metze of grain. We quitted Maroth in a thick shower of snow, and overtook a number of peasants who had been attending a yearly fair, and were loaded with their purchases. Almost all the women carried baskets adapted to the shape of their shoulders; the men were bearing off their bargains; new boots in their hands, and new hats on their heads, covered by their old ones. The country, for some distance, continued to maintain the same general features, but as it opened, a good deal of the land was ploughed, and corn was growing upon the gentle risings on each side. The soil appeared to be good, and tolerably cultivated, but the flocks of

sheep very indifferent. The river Schemnitz, the course of which we had followed the whole way, becomes considerable at Szemered, probably a hundred yards wide. From this place the country rises a little towards Sagh, where it was determined by the postillion that we should sleep that night. It was nearly dark when we arrived. The inn promised well. The keeper of it was an Austrian, and the people were obliging. I soon learned that there were five or six Cygany families resident at Sagh, whose fathers, and perhaps their grandfathers, had resided upon the same spot; and who, by industry, by music, by horse dealing, and by the manufacture of snuff, had raised themselves not only above the usual condition of Cyganis, but even above most of the Hungarian peasantry. These people are always spoken of as remarkable for musical talents, but the Cyganis of Sagh are particularly celebrated for their proficiency. I soon engaged the landlord to accompany me to their cottages, which I found tolerably good. On entering, I could scarcely breathe, the air was so filled with particles of tobacco; for they were busily employed in packing up the snuff which they had manufactured. There were with them two or three peasants, who had been hired to assist them; so that, in a little room, not more than ten feet square, and seven feet high, six or seven men were at work, besides women and children, whose features plainly bespoke their relationship to this tribe.

They received me with evident pleasure when they knew I was a traveller, and what was the object of my visit, inviting me to follow them to another cottage, where I should not be incommoded by their manufacture. With this request, after examining the mortars and sieves used in this business, I readily complied. They lamented that two of their performers were gone to sell horses at the fair of Waitzen; but the four musicians who remained prepared their instruments with a

promptitude and an activity which is peculiar to them. The cottage to which we removed contained a room rather larger than the one we had just quitted. The beds occupied the greater part of the space, and the walls were most abundantly beautified with representations of saints. I was seated in a chair; the innkeeper, as my interpreter, by my side. A Cygany woman sat upon the projecting part of the heated stove, and spun with a distaff, while the children crowded behind her. The four musicians arranged themselves in a circle, and a few peasants who entered, made up the party within doors; but, on the outside, the company was much more numerous, for the sound of music brought the people together, and the news of the arrival of an Englishman excited such curiosity, that they pressed most anxiously to obtain a peep through the little windows. The instruments were three violins and a violoncello, and, at my request, the tunes they played were the national airs of the Hungarians and Sclavonians. After listening for an hour, I was not sorry to bring the concert to a conclusion; for in truth the room, with its low boarded roof, was but little calculated for such a powerful band.

On my return to the inn, I found a tolerable supper and bed prepared; and early the next morning we set off from Sagh, passing through large herds of ill-looking swine, which occupied the road. After crossing the river Ipoly, we travelled along a flat country, till we came upon a terrace, which commanded the view over an extensive and marshy plain. Some large villages were in sight, but my driver's Sclavonian language availed him little in obtaining information respecting them, for we were now amongst true Hungarians, acquainted only with their native tongue. Passing through the village of Honth, we came to an open uneven country, destitute of trees, where the winter crops looked yellow, owing to the constant

changes and prevailing wetness of the weather. On entering another hamlet, the sound of a trumpet caught my ear,—it was singular and harsh; and soon after the musician coming in sight, he proved to be the village herdsman, who, at a certain time in the morning, drives the cattle belonging to the peasants to the common pasture, and brings them home at night. He carried a wooden trumpet, nearly four feet in length; it exactly resembled the instrument usually put by artists into the hands of Fame. With this he gave notice of his approach; and the peasants turned the cattle from their yards, that they might join his drove:—a motley crew, formed of sheep, horses, cows, and goats, much better calculated to please the painter, than to gratify the skilful farmer, or satisfy the wishes of the zealous breeder. In the evening, when the herdsman conducts his drove in safety to the village, each individual finds, as it were instinctively, the cottage of his master, and quietly retires to his accustomed stall. This is the practice through the whole of Hungary, the peasant paying the herdsman a small sum for each animal entrusted to his care, but part of this remuneration is always made in grain or bread.

I fancied that the peasants, who were now more generally real Hungarians, began already to evince greater attention to personal neatness, and certainly more blue occurred in the dress of the men, enlivening the monotonous dirty white, of which we had lately seen so much. As we passed over a country where there was literally no road, we met the three Cyganis who had been absent from our band at Sagh. They were bringing horses from the fair of Waitzen. Although their figures were striking, it was chiefly by their complexion that they were distinguished from native Hungarians. One of them was dressed in a Hussar jacket, and pantaloons of

blue, with boots, and an unusually broad hat falling over his shoulders, and they all bore the appearance of banditti, rather than of dealers. The outline of the country was waved, and the road greatly injured by channels, worn by melted snow. Oroszi, a large village at which we next arrived, is merely a collection of peasants' dwellings. It appears most plentifully supplied with water, if the numerous draw-wells, formed on the usual German construction, with a balanced beam, may be allowed as a just criterion. Here I was told that it would be impossible to travel farther with a pair of horses. All the peasants were ploughing, and none of them could be induced to go the next stage with us. I was, therefore, advised to call upon the *Notarius*. "He could do nothing unless I were "provided with a *Forespann* order." Not having this, he recommended me to apply to the *Dorf Richter*, who kept four horses for public service, and might possibly be prevailed upon to let me have them on hire. When my driver observed the difficulties which were made, and heard their exorbitant demands, he declared that he would have none of their assistance, and, if I would give his horses an extra feed of corn, he would undertake to bring me through any difficulty that four of their horses could overcome. This being settled, I retired to the inn. Here, addressing myself to two decent-looking men on the subject of the road, I was immediately answered, by a request, that they might be permitted to furnish me with an admirable dentifrice. They told me they dealt in such an article, and having attended the fair at Waitzen, were going to Schemnitz. I have seldom seen more polite practitioners, and they seemed to consider this a fit opportunity for trying their arts of flattery. I found, from a conversation with the landlord, that, in this village, above eighty French officers, from the garrison surrendered at Dresden, had been

stationed from January to June last, and their conduct seemed to have gained them at least one eulogist at Oroszi.

At 12 o'clock we were again on our road. Vineyards appeared in different directions; and, as we passed over an extensive tract of ploughed land, I counted seventeen large rude heaps of hay, neither thatched nor covered, which had remained thus exposed since the last year's harvest. It was a faithful picture of the negligent husbandry of the unimproved Hungarian. Hills, with forests, now arose on both sides, which, though not extensive, are said to afford a cover to wolves, whose ravages upon the peasants' horses are subjects of heavy complaint. They have found it difficult to destroy the race, though many are annually shot. A little to the north, and on the Carpathian mountains, the wolf is much more frequent; and, in the provinces of Galicia, where a premium of four and a half florins is paid for each which is destroyed, the number killed amounted, in 1812, to 2046, and, in 1814, to 1483, and the bears killed in the same year to 21. In all the frontiers of Hungary, where mountains and forests abound, the wolf is much dreaded; and, in the hard winter of 1803, no fewer than 1533 head of cattle were devoured by them in the single province of the Walacho-Illyrian frontier regiment, which gave rise to some attempts to destroy them by poison, as the Turks are known to do by means of the *Aconitum Napellus.* The *Nux vomica* was here employed, and, in several instances, the object was attained. When much distressed for food, these animals will sometimes attack the cottages of the peasants, of which an instance occurred not long before I visited the country, in the neighbourhood of Leutschau. A woman who had two children, the one of about twenty years of age, the other much younger, had just quitted her cottage in the morning, when a wolf rushed upon her, and tore her face dreadfully; then leaving the

A DISTANT VIEW OF WAITZEN ON THE DANUBE.

first object of its rage, the animal fixed upon the child, and, in an instant, lacerated its head, depriving it of both its eyes. The elder son, alarmed, flew to the spot, and, seizing the wolf by the throat, held it at bay for some moments, but, not being long able to maintain the unequal contest, himself became the object of attack, and the wolf fixed his hungry fangs deep into his neck. The cries of the unhappy victims had, by this time, brought some assistance to the spot, and the wolf made its escape. As soon, however, as the necessary aid had been afforded to the sufferers, an active pursuit was instituted, and the animal was discovered in a thicket. A young man levelled his piece,—it missed fire, and the wolf, in the very act of springing on its pursuer, was brought to the ground by the well-aimed blow of a cudgel. Instances of such ferocity are, however, but rare, occurring only when the animals are rendered daring by intense hunger.

It was not without the utmost exertion that the horses made good the boast of my driver. Twice I thought it impossible, for the road was hilly, and the wheels sunk continually into deep holes concealed by mud. As the scenery improved, the road also became better; and we now passed over hill and dale, through wood and forest, in delightful succession. We here overtook a carrier's waggon, and the drivers entered into conversation with each other; but, as I overheard them talking about an inn at Waitzen, I began to fear that my conductor, for the sake of company, might be inclined to put up at a carrier's house; for, in most towns of any size, both in Germany and Hungary, there are inferior inns, frequented almost solely by the carriers, or, as they are called, *Fuhrleute;* I therefore desired he would drive on, and I should make my own choice. To this order he un-

willingly submitted; but, though he drove quickly enough to pass the *fuhrwagen*, we were soon overtaken by two Jew travellers and their servant, in a light carriage, with some merchandize. Their large cloaks and three-cornered hats at first made me suppose them priests; but I was soon undeceived. In this country such parties are frequently encountered upon all the public roads; indeed, the system of Jewish traffic forms a very marked feature in Hungary, and seems essentially connected with its present condition. The Jews have long been very numerous here, and have been in former times much more favoured than they now are. In the reign of Andreas II., between the years 1205 and 1235, they were much esteemed, on account of their acquaintance with financial affairs. Their extortions were excessive, and the monarch himself groaned beneath them. Under Bela IV. they were permitted to seize the estates of Magnats, on account of debts, and hold them until redeemed by some Christian. Their usurious dealings were even countenanced, so that, while the Christians were strictly prohibited from taking large interest, the Jews were permitted to receive at the rate of one hundred and four *per cent.* for their money. In 1524 we find a Jew placed by Louis II. as master of the mint at Kaschau. After this time, however, they became subjected to more restraints, and were prohibited from inhabiting the frontiers or the mining towns. In spite of this they continued to increase; and, when King Joseph instituted the census of 1785, the Jews amounted to above 75,000; and, by the census in 1805, to above 127,000, owing their increase in part to the addition of new comers. In 1806 some laws were enacted to prevent them from entering the country in such numbers; and, in 1808, they were first compelled to bear arms like other citizens, for it had been found, that, in some districts, particularly those bordering upon Galicia, the Jews

formed a large part of the whole population. They are nearly all engaged in commerce; and the traffic in wool and wine seems a monopoly in their hands, while the distillery and sale of brandy gives likewise occupation to a great number. Some have a constant residence in the towns; but the generality are found travelling from place to place. These people know exactly the state of the markets at the most distant points; they buy at one town, and sell at another, and take many cruel advantages of the peasants, who are often reduced to the necessity of selling their farming produce, and disposing of the profits of a future harvest, at prices fixed by the artful manœuvres of these keen speculators.

The party which had now overtaken us observed us with inquiring eyes, and then passed quickly on towards the town.

Having gained a considerable elevation, a noble view presented itself. The Danube, in great magnificence, rolled along the plain, and, by its division into two stately branches, formed the island of St Andras. In the distance, at one of its largest bends, Waitzen appeared,—a large town, and handsomely built. The grandeur of the scene was heightened for the moment by a stormy sky, and a rain-bow stretching across the plain.

After passing through a flat sandy district, in about an hour we reached the town of Waitzen, to which the entrance is through a stone gate-way, with an inscription. It was dusk, and I had yet to inquire for the best inn, as, after what I had said on this subject, I could not rely upon my conductor. On alighting from the carriage, I was accosted by a person, whose features I could scarcely distinguish, with questions as to what was my business, and in what trade I was engaged. The expression was so earnest, that for a moment I mistook the tone for that of authority. In a short time, however, my error was

rectified, and I discovered that my new acquaintance was a Jew, who was anxious to lose no opportunity of closing a bargain with me, before I had learned the course of the markets. Having assured him that my trade was a secret, and that I had no farther business in this town than to find a good inn, he undertook to be my guide. He inquired what news I had brought, and was particularly desirous to know whether Napoleon had really escaped from Elba. It was the first report I had heard of that extraordinary event; and, believing I had the best grounds for my opinion, I assured him he might make his mind perfectly easy upon that point. He then left me, to profit by the denial of the report; and I established myself for the night in a very good inn, where the carrier, whose information I had so unjustly doubted, arrived shortly after.

Waitzen, which was founded in 1076 by King Geysa, and has since that time participated with the surrounding territory in all the vicissitudes of peace and war, is now a considerable town, with good houses, wide streets, and three churches, of which one faces an open square, and is a very handsome modern building, with a Corinthian portico. On the opposite side of the square is the bishop's palace, a large well-built residence. Here booths were erected for the fair, which was now almost concluded; but I left the town too early in the morning to see what they contained, or in what mode their owners carried on their trade. The church, however, was open, and I took the opportunity of visiting it. Those who have seen the interior of Catholic churches well know that they generally present an uninteresting repetition of trivial ornaments, calculated to please the vulgar, but offending against good taste. So it was in the present instance; but the country people at their early devotions, and clad in their simple dresses, formed a much more interesting spectacle.

An institution for the education of the deaf and dumb was established at Waitzen in 1803, and has been since enriched by some considerable legacies. The number of scholars amounts to about thirty.

In the year 1808 the King gave an extensive building, and a sum of money, towards establishing a military academy here. The Queen and the nobles likewise contributed largely for this object. It was intended to educate 120 young men of the nobility, or the free citizens. They were to enter between the age of twelve and fifteen, and to remain six years; and the education, which was, of course, to embrace other objects, was chiefly to be directed to military acquirements. It was, however, somewhat checked in its progress, and, I believe, has not yet been completely established.

After leaving Waitzen, the traveller enters upon that plain which forms the eastern half of Hungary, to which I was unable to extend my tour. I shall, however, take this opportunity of introducing a little of what I have collected on the subject, which, after having seen a part of it, and heard much about the rest, may probably not be incorrect. The scenery at this moment was characteristic,—a dry sandy common, sometimes totally without vegetation, frequently with scarcely enough to bind the sand together, lay extended before us. In some places it was drifted by the wind into hillocks; in others it bore the rippled appearance observed on the sandy banks of rivers. In parts, several acres of good turf had been formed; and here and there were seen farm-houses, surrounded by a few fields. Let the reader pass his eye upon the map, from Waitzen to Pesth, from Pesth to Debretzin, from Debretzin to Gross Wardein, from Gross Wardein to Temeschwar, and thence by Segedin back to Pesth, and he will scarcely meet with a single elevation. He will pass much of the sandy coun-

try, extensive fertile, but uninhabited, plains, where vast droves of cattle are fed, and prodigious marshy tracts on both sides of the Theiss, of which the character throughout is one unvaried and apparently unlimited plain.

The following fact, stated by Witsch, in a work upon the subject, will give some idea of the nature of the sandy parts of this district: In the year 1792, a certain district near Ketshemet was measured, and found to contain twelve square miles, of which two miles were covered with drifting sand. Between the years 1805 and 1806 the same district was again measured, and the sand at that time had extended itself over six miles, thus laying waste one-half of this tract of land. He likewise states, that, in the *comitatus* of Pesth alone, thirty square miles of this drifted sand exist.

But, of the road between Debretzin and Pesth I will give a short account, nearly in the words of an Hungarian nobleman, Graf Vincent Bathyany.

" Between Debretzin and Ujvaros there is still some pasture; but farther on it becomes a complete waste; the wheels at one moment glide over scorched grass, at the next they sink deep into mud. At length we discovered the cottages of Hortobágy, which rises amidst the boundless plain like a ship upon the unruffled ocean. We soon reached the village, pitying the inhabitants of a spot so inhospitable. The marshes extend far and wide; and neither tree nor bush shelters the land from the rays of the sun, which are here shed upon a scene of unvaried uniformity, while the sand which in places covers the earth, and the shells and fossils which are found, plainly demonstrate that the waters of the sea once occupied this country.

" At Tisza Füred we crossed the Theiss, and came soon after to the village of Porozlo, where we found good houses, fer-

tile arable land, and much open pasture. The latter forms part of the immense tract of grass lands, between the Theiss and Gyula, extending from Neusatz in the south to Pesth, and on which the greater part of the horned cattle is fed. In the provinces of Zips, Ædenburg, and Eisenburg, much stall-fed cattle is raised; but in this country artificial meadows are less profitable than open pastures.

"In proportion as we advanced, the landscape became more varied. Atány lies amidst fields of hemp and corn. Near to Heves is a small extent of forest. Around Jaszapáthi the acacia mingles itself with the mulberry, and the country about Jaszberény is covered with a variety of produce. These two market towns have considerable churches and good houses; in the latter resides the Captain of the districts of Jazyga and Cumania.

"We turned with delight from this place towards Matra; rising majestically amidst a delightful country, which the mountain itself contributes to enrich. Tobacco flourishes on the sloping grounds at Debrö, and the vine at Visonta, the mountain reflecting the rays of the sun, warding off the north wind, and pouring forth on all sides its fertilizing streams.

"From Arokszállás, we passed with the active horses, for which Cumania is celebrated, through a succession of villages, gardens, and meadows, intersected by a rivulet, to Gyöngyös, a town romantically situated upon the mountain side. This place contains 8000 inhabitants; the houses are good, and the people industrious, manufacturing spirits, leather, blankets, and cloth. Here trade is likewise carried on in wine, cheese, and alum, brought from the famous alum works of Parád. A pleasant road conducted us to Hatvan, which is also a pretty market town. From Hatvan we travelled over the post-road, and passing through Bagh, Kerepes, and lastly over the plain of the

Rákos, which is rendered celebrated as the place where formerly the public assemblies of the states were held."

Debretzin, the most important town in this flat country, is probably one of the most singular in Europe. Though formed almost entirely of cottages, it contains 40,000 inhabitants, —a true Hungarian village, increased to the magnitude of a city, without having adopted the usual dissipations of a crowded metropolis. It boasts, however, of a large reformed or Calvinistic college, at present in considerable repute, the number of students, in the more advanced classes, amounting, in 1814, to 550, whose pursuits are variously directed towards Church History and Theology, Hebrew, Hungarian Law, Greek, Latin, Natural Philosophy, Politics, and Statistics.

The greater part of the houses are thatched, which has rendered it subject at various times to severe ravages from fire. In the spring of 1811, not fewer than 2000 habitations were reduced to ashes in the course of six hours.

But we will again listen to Graf Bathyany, as he describes the second metropolis of his native country.

" Singular as it may appear, scarcely any of the houses in this great city are above one story in height, and few are built on any regular plan. In summer you must wade through sand, and at other seasons through deep mud, even when you keep to the streets and public paths. The blank walls, the dark retail shops, the tobacco-pipe sellers, the smokers, and the dogs, the stillness which reigns in the midst of the daily business, and the earnestness which sits upon every countenance, all bring to the mind a lively recollection of the dwellings of our Eastern neighbours. At the first moment you are tempted to believe that all the women are purposely concealed. The black handkerchiefs with which they cover their heads resem-

ble hats, and their blue pelisses, approaching to the uniform of the Hussar, almost disguise their sex. The men are covered with large cloaks, generally of a dark blue, and look under their broad hats as from beneath an umbrella, and the appearance of the multitude, in other places so varied, is here uniform and melancholy.

"The fairs are held without the town every three months. An extent which the eye can scarcely command, is then covered with flocks and waggons,—with bales and cases,—with tents and huts,—around which thousands of people are constantly gathered. A few years ago, a fire broke out amongst the tents, which not only destroyed a great quantity of the merchandise, but extended itself to the suburbs of Debretzin; since which, the merchants have constructed many booths of stone and brick, the latter, which are very bad, made in the neighbourhood, and the former brought from Tokay and the hills around Helmecz. The scarcity of building materials, and the expence of laying good foundations, have probably prevented the inhabitants from building large houses, to which their simple mode of life, and the dislike they feel to a divided possession of dwellings, have likewise contributed.

"The magistrates of Debretzin watch carefully over the good order and the security of the citizen, and receive strangers with every attention and every proof of hospitality. The handicraft workmen, who are at the same time generally employed in agricultural labour, make nothing but coarse articles; the finer being brought from Pesth and Vienna. The number of these workmen is, however, considerable,—and an extensive manufacture of saltpetre is also carried on." A species of soap is likewise made, chiefly in small quantities of 70 or 80 lbs. each, at the different cottages. This is an article much admired, and considered as a luxury throughout the whole

Austrian dominions; it is of a peculiarly light and spongy consistence. The clay heads of tobacco-pipes are also manufactured by the cottagers, a branch of industry which occupies many hands in this part of Hungary.

It is difficult to ascertain with precision the extent of commerce maintained by means of Debretzin. It forms a central point for the traffic between Pesth, and both the north of Hungary and a great part of Transylvania; but in all commercial tables, or the accounts of duties paid, the noblemen and their wares, as well as the inhabitants of the extensive free districts, called *Jazyga* and *Cumania*, and of the *Haiduc towns*, are altogether exempted and overlooked. *Schwartner*, however, has afforded us the following data:

In January 1793, the number of merchants, salesmen, and handicraft workmen, who paid for stands at the fair, amounted to		577
In April to	- -	1088
In August to	- -	1239
In October to	- - -	1027

The sum paid, at the rate of 15 kreutzers the square klafter, yielded to the city 1823 florins, 22½ kreutzers. In the year 1806, the sum paid amounted to 3180 florins. Besides these, more than 5000 peasants' waggons come in August loaded with grain, fruit, onions, and crockery ware; and to this must be added the market for cattle, which ranks next after those of Pesth and Ketskemet. In April 1794, a season at which no one sells more cattle than he is obliged, the peasants alone brought 6248 head of horned cattle, and 1692 swine to the market; and the wine, which, in the course of the year, from November 1, 1803, to October 31, 1804, was sold in the inns at De-

bretzin for the consumption of the town and neighbouring country, and the strangers who passed, amounted to 35,740 casks, each containing 50 halbes. Of this wine, however, which is generally very bad, few, except the lowest classes of those who come to the market, partake, every one, who is able, bringing with him wine, dried meats, and bedding; because, at Debretzin, though there are many small public-houses for the entertainment of the common people, there are only two tolerable inns, and these but lately established. On the whole, the fairs of Debretzin, were it not for about forty booths which have been built since the fire of 1802, present all the appearance of an immense horde of nomades. The money paid for pasturage alone yielded to the town, in the year 1806, 1898 florins. Graf Bathyany says, that tobacco is one great object of merchandise, and states that the royal agents, for the purchase of this article, collect annually and send away fifty thousand centners.

The following is a list of all the trades and handicraft occupations carried on in Debretzin in the year 1807:

751	Hungarian shoemakers
12	German shoemakers
97	Hungarian slop tailors for supplying markets
50	Hungarian tailors
12	German tailors
104	Hungarian pelissemakers or furriers
1	German do.
209	Cloakmakers
57	Great-coatmakers
25	Blanketmakers
6	Old clothes shops
12	German hatmakers
19	Hungarian hatmakers
37	Buttonmakers
4	Bead-ornament makers
58	Combmakers
1	Glover
2	Gold embroiderers
4	Beltmakers
41	Smiths, Hungarians
12	Cutlers
4	German smiths
1	Sword smith
1	Gunmaker
2	Knife-grinders
31	Locksmiths
1	Goldsmith
2	Coppersmiths
2	Tin-workers

6 Carriagemakers, Hungarians
2 German coachmakers
65 Hungarian wheelwrights
4 German wheelwrights
49 Saddlers
10 Weavers
1 Linen printer
5 Dyers
26 Master joiners
41 Master carpenters, Hungarians
5 Carpenters, Germans
6 Builders, Germans
1 Builder, Hungarian
40 Plasterers
15 Thatchers
1 Painter
15 Brick-burners
105 Potters
43 Turners of pipe ends
30 Coopers
24 Ropemakers
25 Oilmakers
78 Soap-boilers, (besides mothers of families)
186 Tanners
3 Snuffmakers
10 Curriers
4 Glaziers
2 Turners
1 Piano-forte-maker
1 Sievemaker
1 Printer of books
10 Bookbinders
7 Barbers
4 Apothecaries
49 Butchers
19 Small butchers
84 Pork butchers
19 Dealers in honey
40 Millers
70 Bread bakers, women
16 Cake bakers, women
1 German baker
8 Kitchen gardeners
54 Bee-keepers
10 Dealers in hemp and tobacco
13 Ironmongers
3 German hucksters
2 Hungarian do.
90 Women selling fruit
40 Dealers in oxen and horses
76 Merchants and retail dealers
20 Cattle brokers.

On examining this list, it immediately appears that almost all the tradesmen are such as are requisite for administering to the necessary wants of man; and that, wherever their occupations deviate a little from this line, the numbers who find employment are very small. Although this picture is drawn from one of the largest of the Hungarian towns, luxury has hitherto so little kept pace with the increase of population, that, were we to place together a number of small market-towns from different parts of the country, till a mass of people equal to that of Debretzin were accumulated, we should be

able from these to make out a list approaching very nearly to that which we have before us, except as regards those who are employed in a few peculiar occupations, such as potters, for manufacturing chiefly the heads of tobacco-pipes, and soap-boilers, with one or two others, which are confined to particular spots. In the year 1777, the whole number of master handicraftsmen, their servants, and apprentices, in Hungary, amounted to only 30,921, and this number does not seem by more recent partial calculations to have been much increased.

Of the poor inhabitants of Debretzin, many depend for their subsistence on fields situated upon the plain, several days' journey from their houses. To these they retire with their families and cattle for a fortnight, two or three times a year, as the cultivation of the land or the harvest may require, living in a hut, a tent, or a waggon, according to their circumstances, and the state of the weather. Others again, quitting the large villages in which they live, go far into the plain to attend the flocks and herds of their superiors, leading, for many weeks or months without interruption, a life of hardship and privation, which custom has taught them to bear with indifference. The whole of the level tract is divided into what are called *prædia*, which belong to different nobles; and, in this district, there are villages, the property of single individuals, which contain two or three thousand peasants, each of whom possesses an entire session of land.

Heeren has supposed, that this extensive plain was once the bottom of a lake, of which the Carpathian chain formed the northern boundary, and that, upon the breaking through of the Danube, it was drained;—a theory which is, perhaps, applicable to numberless other similar tracts of flat land, and which has been very well illustrated in the valuable Map of Europe, published during the last year at Vienna, by the

General Baron Sorriot, with a view of shewing how the whole continent of Europe may be considered as divided into basins, from each of which some large river forms the outlet. In this map, it appears that all Hungary, together with much of Austria and Bavaria, may be included in a great basin, of which the north is bounded by the Carpathian chain and other high lands, stretching to the *Fichtel-gebirge*, north of Ratisbon, terminating in the Black Forest, not far from Strasburg, and having to the south the Alps, and the mountains of Dalmatia and Croatia, extending to the Black Sea. This great basin is intersected by inferior ridges, forming some smaller basins, all of which, however, pour their waters into the Danube.

But to return from this digression. Whilst passing over the sandy plain, after we had left Waitzen, we saw the town of Szent Andras, situated on the island to which it gives its name; and in a short time, the Castle of Buda, or Ofen, proudly overlooking the river. This fortress was still, however, at a considerable distance when we arrived at the village of Dunakeszi. Here some other vehicles had stopped just before mine, and I found a large party of men and women dining upon eggs. I soon fell into conversation with an intelligent man who had travelled much in Hungary, and still more in Transylvania, whither he annually makes a tour to purchase honey. I laid open my map upon a bed, and he kindly answered all my inquiries. He spoke in the highest terms of the hospitality he had experienced in Transylvania when under circumstances of difficulty, and related some very striking instances in confirmation of his report.

From Dunakeszi the road passes by the side of the Danube, which is here very broad, but interrupted in its course by two or three islands before it reaches Pesth.

At Pesth we found some difficulty in procuring a lodging; most of the inns being full of persons come to attend the quarterly fair just commencing. When we had tried in vain at the *Schiff*, the *Paradies*, and the *Sieben Churfürsten*, which were esteemed the principal inns, but each more miserable in appearance than the other; we were at length directed to the *König von Ungern*, where I had every reason to rejoice at my good fortune; for, instead of a dirty inn, tottering with age, opening into a close street, and the yard filled with calashes and merchandise, I here found a very handsome new building, scarcely finished, standing in an open place, and so extensive as to contain one hundred and ten bed-chambers, and an excellent coffee-room on the ground floor, where a number of strangers and inhabitants met to dine and to sup, with very tolerable music to fill up the intervals of conversation.

Pesth and Buda, or, as it is otherwise called, Ofen, form almost one city, which is the capital of Hungary. They are separated by the Danube, here seen in all its majesty, over which is an easy communication by a bridge formed of forty-seven large boats, united by chains and covered with planks. The length of the bridge is nearly three hundred yards, and it is so constructed that two or three boats, with their planks and railings, may at any time be removed; and every morning and evening, at stated hours, the vessels and the rafts of timber which navigate or float down the Danube, are permitted to pass. At the approach of winter, however, large bodies of ice render it necessary to remove the bridge entirely; and for a period no communication exists between the two banks of the Danube, till the whole is so completely frozen as to afford a secure passage over the ice.

To give some idea of the number of passengers upon this bridge, it may be stated, that the annual rent paid by the receiv-

er of the tolls is 37,700 florins ; and this sum, together with the expences of furnishing a secure passage, when that can only be effected by boats, is to be repaid by the toll of a few kreutzers, payable by the peasantry alone, for all the nobles and citizens are exempt.

Buda, the seat of the Hungarian Government, and the residence of the Palatine, contains 30,000 inhabitants. Its situation is on the right bank of the Danube, commanding and majestic. The extensive fortress, which occupies a high rock, contains the palaces of the Palatine, and of several Hungarian Nobles, the public arsenal and theatre, with many churches and streets, forming within itself a complete town. Round the foot of this rock, and along the side of the river, runs a street, while others, with gardens, surround it in different directions, and clothe the side of a second rocky eminence called the Blocksberg, which hangs over the river at a short distance to the south, and on which the new Observatory is constructed.

Pesth, the Transacincum of the Romans, occupies the left bank of the river. It is the seat of commerce, and contains nearly 33,000 inhabitants. It is built upon a plain, where it extends itself more and more every day, and is one of the very few towns upon the continent which seems to have suffered little during the late periods of disturbance. Besides the inn at which I lodged, several very extensive buildings were in progress ; and, although we are not struck by any magnificence, we are certainly gratified by a considerable display of good streets and handsome houses, besides many churches and buildings belonging to different religious orders, each generally adorned with two steeples.

The town of Pesth may be divided into the Old and New Town, of which the latter has by far the most regularity in its

structure. In many different parts of the town are seen large buildings facing to the streets, entered by covered gateways, and known by the name of the nobleman to whom they belong, which is often inscribed above the chief entrance. These are generally built as speculations, and not as the residence of the proprietor himself, who, at most, has only a suit of apartments reserved for his own use. Thus we find the *Kemnitzerishe haus*, the *Urmenyishe haus*, the *Egerishe haus*, the *Festetitsische haus*, and the *Baron Orczische haus*, with many others; the last, which is situated at the corner of the Landstrasse, has three entrances, and the same number of courts, is chiefly inhabited by Jews, and contains a Synagogue. It was originally intended for an Hotel and Bazaar, to have within itself all kinds of different tradesmen and artificers. Such edifices are seldom built with any attention to beauty of external appearance, but always bear a massive character, which contributes much to the importance of the groups in which they are placed.

The streets were at this time busy, filled with a motley crowd, chiefly of dealers and peasants, some in their holiday dresses, but the greater part wrapt in thick cloaks. The native merchants sat smoking at their shop doors, a bale of tobacco on this side, a huge tub of caviare upon the other; the baker, with a light basket on his shoulders, trotted briskly from street to street, announcing his approach by the shrill sound of a small wooden trumpet; and Jews, Armenians, and Turks, each in the costume of their country, formed themselves promiscuously into parties. A few private carriages rolled through the streets; rustic waggons drawn by oxen, moved slowly on; and *fiacres*, of which the number was very great, had taken up their stations in all the cross ways and open places, each framed after the same pattern, in the form of an antiquated square calash.

Amongst the public buildings of Pesth, two are particularly conspicuous; the Grenadiers' Caserne, built by Charles the Sixth, a large edifice, which presents a very handsome and regular front to the street; and the second a most extensive pile of buildings in the Leopoldstadt, commenced by the Emperor Joseph in 1786, and called by his name. This structure consists of four squares, united by long ranges. It was left unfinished at the death of Joseph; and for what purpose it was built is to this day unknown:—a part of it which has been finished is now occupied by soldiers.

A large new theatre, the building of which commenced in 1808, had been lately completed. There are some peculiarities in its structure, and many ideas have been adopted, from the buildings of the ancients. The whole theatre is somewhat in the form of the longitudinal section of an egg, about one-third at the smaller end being cut off for the stage. The proscenium is wider than in almost any of the continental theatres. In front it is 56½ feet wide, and 51 feet high; the depth is 9½ feet, and it then contracts gradually to 51 feet, and diminishes in height to 42 feet. The width of the area forming the stage, and set apart for scenery, is 93 feet, decreasing to 74, and its depth, with the proscenium, 90 feet; but the great saloon, built for redoutes and assemblies, is capable of being thrown into the stage, and then the whole is 228 feet deep. The pit, at its widest part, a few feet from the stage, is 60 feet, and its depth is 45 feet, of which a part is overhung by the lowest row of boxes. The boxes and gallery form four tiers, each of which projects a little less than the one below it, and becomes somewhat more curved, so that they all terminate at the same distance from the proscenium, which renders some of the upper-boxes near the stage excessively contracted. The whole house is lined with thin boarding, with a

view of increasing the sound, and as little drapery is employed as possible. The ceilings are not arched, but the corners gently rounded off. The boxes are divided like those of the Opera-House in London; but the partitions are very thin. The ornaments are graceful, chiefly in white and gold. The principal light is derived from the stage, though the other parts of the house are by no means dark.

The performance at this house is always in German; and I here saw exhibitions of Tableaux on a very large scale. They represented historical subjects. The curtain drew up, and disclosed the actors, fixed immovably in their respective characters; they thus remained for some minutes. A signal was given, and they all changed their positions, representing some new action. Having in this remained stationary for some time longer, a signal was again given, and the action proceeded one step farther. After a time, a fourth change took place, and then, the curtain falling, the picture was hidden from our view.

The Hungarian theatre is a very small and poor building, yet till lately the only theatre in the place. I could not comprehend much of the play, but the sound of the language in declamation was not pleasing. Between the acts national music was performed, on the peculiar instruments of Hungary. Amongst them was the Dudelsack, a genuine bagpipe with a fine drone, adorned in front by a goat's head, and covered with a goat's skin; this was again wrapped in the Hungarian cloak worn by the performer, and the whole made a most formidable appearance. Most of the other instruments were in some way constructed with bells, and apparently of Turkish origin. In one, a succession of differently sized bells was arranged, one bell above the other, upon a small bar which

passed through their centres. These produced a very pleasing effect when they were played upon with a round-headed stick.

Another instrument, which I have frequently seen in Hungarian cottages, resembles the Langspiel, described by Sir George Mackenzie in his Travels in Iceland. It is, however, shorter and thicker, not played with a bow, but with a small stick, with which the performer strikes the cords. The whole instrument is not above two feet long, and, like the langspiel, is placed upon the table during the performance.

The Hungarians have not distinguished themselves as great musicians, though there is some encouragement given to the science at Pesth. Francis Kleinheinz, whose name is most known as a composer in Hungary, is a Bavarian; his works are highly praised. Specht, whose compositions are formed more upon the French model, is, however, an Hungarian. Upon the whole, the orchestra at the German theatre is well supported.

Theatrical exhibitions are but of recent origin in Hungary. Thirty or forty years ago they were quite unknown; and there are but few original dramatic works in the language. About the year 1790, after the death of Joseph the Second, considerable exertions were made to encourage the Hungarian theatre, as a means of cultivating and extending the language. At that time a theatrical society was formed at Pesth, which continued its efforts during six years; and plays were performed both in this capital and at Klausenberg. In 1792 a work appeared at Pesth, under the title of *A magyar Játék Szin*, (The Hungarian Theatre;) and, in 1794, a similar work was published in Transylvania, entitled *Erdélyi Játékos Gyujtemény*. Nearly all the pieces introduced into these collections are taken from the German; and amongst the translators' names are found those of Boér, Bartsai, and Seelmann in particular. The spirited exertions

which were then made to forward this object of national pride gradually subsided, but were never entirely relinquished, and have lately been renewed with increased energy. The theatre is espoused as a national cause,—the nobles have come forward with large subscriptions to assist in erecting an edifice worthy of the language which they cherish; and, in the beginning of the year 1816, the new building was commenced.

It is a very general cause of complaint and regret amongst the Hungarians, that their language has been more than neglected; they say it has been discouraged by the Austrian government, and they are thankful to the Palatine who has countenanced the establishment of their national theatre. This is a feeling natural and honourable; it must, however, be confessed, that the Hungarian tongue is local, and, in its application, perhaps more partial than that of any other country. The mixture of languages in Hungary itself is so great, that scarcely one third of the inhabitants speak the Hungarian; and thus, every one who hopes to travel beyond the village in which he was born, is compelled to learn some other language or dialect. Hence probably it is that Latin has been retained as a common medium of communication. All the older writings are in this language, and, at the present moment, Hungary presents in miniature the picture of the whole continent of Europe, before, each country, to the great benefit of works of imagination, and to the unspeakable advantage of national spirit and improvement, adopted its own language, as best suited to convey its own associations and feelings.

It was under the fostering reign of Maria Theresa that the power of this language was first fairly tried. When the Empress formed her Hungarian guard, a number of young men of birth were called to Vienna, both from Hungary and Transylvania. Here they found leisure, and had both sufficient oppor-

tunity of improvement, and sufficient excitement to emulation. It was from amongst these that the more celebrated writers in poetry and belles-lettres in the Hungarian language appeared. Bessenyei, who died about 1778; Bárótzi, a Transylvanian, who died in 1774; and Bartsai, likewise a Transylvanian, who flourished about the same time, are perhaps the three most celebrated of the *older* poets. Csokonay and Szabo are also much praised; and of those who are now living, Kazinczy and Kisfaludi are chiefly admired.

The circumstance, however, which called forth all the energy of Hungarian talents in defence of the language, was the attempt made by the Emperor Joseph to annihilate it, by prohibiting its use in all public acts, and substituting German in its place. The national feeling excited upon this occasion shewed itself in numerous publications; and though the ardour of enthusiasm may have passed away, it has left a lasting impression. The minds of the Hungarians have been called to the subject; their national pride is roused; they begin to read with pleasure, in their own tongue, biographical accounts of the worthies of their own country, and dwell with delight upon the strains of the Hungarian muse.

I lament that I am unable to appreciate the merits of their authors. I can only say that Hungarians, with whom I have spoken, men conversant with French, German, Italian, and some even with English literature, speak with a rapture of the late poems of Kisfaludi, which, after all fair allowances for national feeling, obliges me to believe that their merit is of the first order. Yet, as a proof of the narrow sphere to which this author's celebrity is confined, I have sought his works in vain through all Vienna; nor, indeed, could I find in that metropolis any other Hungarian books than a grammar, dictionary, and a

collection from the poets, published by the professor of the language at the university of Vienna.

We cannot be surprised, that many of the other languages of Hungary, as the Sclavonian and Croatian, should be even less cultivated than the Hungarian, since, although the former of these assumes, by its name, the privilege of being considered as the root of several of the European languages, yet some, which bear the strictest analogy to it, as the Polish and Bohemian, are much more refined, and have made a progress which has left this,—approaching much nearer in all probability to the parent language,—under the stigma of being a mere dialect. Accordingly, we find an extensive list of works in each of these tongues; whilst, in the Sclavonian, and Croatian or Illyrian, the catalogue is nearly limited to grammars for children, dialogues for strangers, and bibles and prayer-books for the churches. There are, I understand, not even dictionaries, the only lexicon of the Sclavonian language, as spoken by the Hungarian Slowak, being an unfinished manuscript, the writer of which has been dead some years. I shall, however, in a subsequent chapter, speak more at large upon the subject, both of the languages and the literature of Hungary.

The fine arts are, of course, but in their infancy in this country; the close connection between Vienna and Pesth, and all those circumstances which, in spite of national pride, contribute to reduce the latter to the rank of a provincial capital, prevent the accumulation of talent, by transferring the means of its encouragement to the more powerful and rival city. Amongst the painters, few are Hungarians by birth. Lampi is a German; Neygass and Weyde are both from Berlin; and Pfenninger is a Swiss. These four artists all paint in oil; their chief occupation being in portraits. The last has executed many landscapes with taste. Rauschmann, who

draws chiefly in water colours, is also a German. Several of the engravers are Hungarians. Amongst these, Falka has executed many portraits; he also engraves seals, and cuts inscriptions, both in copper and in steel. He is much praised by his countrymen, but certainly cannot rank high among modern artists. He made the first attempts to introduce stereotype printing into Hungary in 1798; and, in the following years, printed several small poems. The art has not, however, been carried to any extent. Junker, who engraves maps with much repute at Vienna, is an Hungarian; and the names of Czetter, Berken, Karacs, and Prixner, occur frequently in connection with the ornamental parts of works proceeding from the presses of Ofen and Pesth. Some of the productions of Messerschmedt, a sculptor of Pressburg, are preserved in the Museum of Pesth; and also a finely cut glass vessel, representing the siege of Pressburg in 1809, executed by Joseph Riegele, an artist of that town. The Hungarians have, in several instances, been distinguished for mechanical genius. The Museum contains some specimens in proof of this; and the name of Mahl, and several others, are well known as the laborious inventors of most curious automaton figures, and of instruments capable of imitating the most complicated sounds, even of the human voice.

The amusements of Pesth and Buda differ but little from those of the chief German towns. The theatres have been already mentioned. There are many coffee-houses, which are frequented in the evenings; and several public gardens, to which the people resort. A walk, sheltered by trees, along the western ramparts of Buda, overlooking the mountains and the vineyards, has long been the favourite place of assemblage when the weather is fine; and a similar parade has been lately formed on that bank of the Danube on which Pesth is placed.

During the Carnival the usual festivities prevail; splendid public balls are held twice a-week in each of these towns, besides a great number of private assemblies, at which declamation is admitted as a favourite amusement; and, as the Palatine countenances the entertainments, and many of the Hungarian nobility make it a pride to support their establishments in their own capital, considerable vivacity is maintained in places of public resort. The two places in the vicinity of the town, to which the inhabitants chiefly withdraw, in order to enjoy, for a few hours, the refreshment of the country, are the garden of Graf Ortzy, and the spot which is denominated the Forest. The former is about three miles distant from the town. It is a garden and shrubbery, laid out with taste, and liberally opened by the proprietor to all who visit it. The garden is handsome, and the views of Ofen add greatly to its beauty. The Forest is rather a projected than a finished pleasure-ground. It was intended to convert a large piece of land, not very fertile in its nature, into a beautiful labyrinth of shrubs and flowers. Many trees were planted; and, though the object was never completed, the Forest still serves as an occasional excursion in the summer afternoon.

As it was the period of the great spring fair, I had an opportunity of forming some idea, while at Pesth, of the mode in which trade is conducted in Hungary. The fair was held in a large open space within the town, where a great quantity of manufactured goods, of various kinds, were exposed to sale. Almost the whole of these, however, were brought from Vienna, for no country in Europe is perhaps less indebted to her own manufactures than Hungary. An extension of the market, where agricultural produce, the true riches of the country, was chiefly seen, occupied some streets in the suburbs. The Greeks, and a few Turkish merchants, had

taken up their stations in different parts, and the whole presented a picture of that bartering traffic which marks the early stages of commercial intercourse; but I shall here, for the gratification of my reader, substitute the more minute observations, which were made by an anonymous Hungarian writer in the summer fair of 1812, as the picture is remarkably faithful, and includes several interesting circumstances, which a difference in the season of the year prevented me from observing.

"The greater part of the dealers from Vienna and the upper country arrived between the 13th and 15th of August, or came after the fair of Debretzin was concluded. The regular frequenters of the fair have their shops or booths hired by the year, in which they are accustomed to sleep, partly to save the expence of lodging, and partly for the security of their goods. Those who come for the first time must seek some advantageous place to display their merchandise.

"The best and principal shops are found in the Bridge-street, —the chief street on entering over the bridge from Ofen,—in the three side streets which lead from it to the fair, and in the new large and substantially built houses around the fair itself, which form an extensive and regular square. In the course of the first week, booths were erected for the dealers who lived in the town, and those who had come from a distance, established themselves in theirs, which were frequently of very considerable dimensions. The great spirit of the market was chiefly confined to the shops. Merchants who resided in the distant parts of Hungary, in the neighbouring countries, and in the Turkish provinces, came to pay for the goods which they had purchased six, nine, or twelve months before, and to make new bargains on the same terms.

"The booths were so disposed, that a carriage road was left, crossing the open place at right angles, and dividing it into four squares, which were again divided by passages and streets; at each end of the chief streets stood a fire-engine, with vessels filled with water, and a guard of invalids. In the booths of the first square, haberdashery wares, hats, and clothes for both sexes, were exposed for sale; and the name of each street was written on the corners, as Lady's, King's, or Palatine's Street. In the second square were exhibited hats, women's shoes, boots, furriers' goods, gloves, and other articles of this description. In the third and fourth, iron-ware and cloth were the chief articles. On the left hand of the fair was a small place covered with booths, where the Greeks offered their goods for sale, particularly cloth, leather, and linens. In other booths nothing but fishing-tackle was sold. In another place, to the right of the fair, towards the Landstrasse, were exposed linen goods of all descriptions, and to the left, sights and puppet-shews. Farther on, in the Landstrasse, were seen immense stores of wool, partly in waggons, and partly in houses, employed as magazines; the value of the whole wool was estimated at five millions of florins. Other magazines, in different places, contained many thousand eimers of spirits, or were filled with tobacco, which the peasants likewise brought in waggons, or bound together in bales.

"Without the Hatvan gate, on both sides of a road, extending about half a mile, a motley variety of goods was displayed, chiefly the produce of the country, as flax, hemp, large heaps of tallow, and complete walls of new wine-casks and coarse linen. These for the most part were sold in the waggons, the traders placing four of them to form a square, and covering the intermediate space with boards, or with a piece of coarse cloth, in this way, without farther expence, constructing

a temporary habitation. Here and there a little party of Jews had established themselves, whose whole materials for traffic perhaps consisted of a small stock of old iron. Dealing is not the only business which is pursued at this place, for between the waggons and the bales of goods, sheds are raised in which gypsies offer refreshments, in appearance as little attractive as the brown hands by which they are presented. In these little huts, and around them, people from all the different nations which inhabit Hungary take refuge;—some regale themselves on the viands prepared in the kitchen of the gypsy, —others enjoy a rich melon or a piece of fat which they have brought with them,—while others are content with the charms of indolence. This part of the scene, which may be deemed a foretaste of the East, is rendered full of activity by the countless multitude of horses and of waggons, by which the buyers, the sellers, the gypsies, and the merchandise, have been brought to the spot.

" Still farther, and approaching the place of public execution, stands a complete fortification of waggons prepared for sale without the iron-work;—waggons which are loaded with others taken to pieces. To the right the eye wanders amidst extensive flocks of sheep and herds of cattle, the latter of which sometimes amount to the number of 30,000.

" Forwards to the left is the horse-market, the extreme end of which is formed into a circle by waggons placed together, partly designed for sale, and partly the vehicles which have brought the dealers and spectators. The horses which have been broken in and are offered to sale, form another circle, and the other part of the space is surrounded with strong paling, and is divided into many partitions, each containing from thirty to forty untrained horses. These are purchased by their appearance, without any opportunity being afforded for a more minute

examination. At the gate of each partition stand five or six grooms armed with long poles, with which, when a horse is to be taken, they enter the drove, sending the animals in all directions, until the one which is required has separated itself, and taken refuge in a corner. Here the grooms throw a noose over its head; and according as it is more or less wild, either secure it by a halter to one that is already accustomed to the bridle, or throw it down, bind it, and carry it away upon a waggon.

" Another part of the fair, which is well worthy of observation, is upon the bank of the Danube from the bridge upwards. Here the finer kinds of pottery are sold in booths, and the inferior sorts are exposed for sale either upon the vessels themselves, or piled like cannon-balls upon the shore. An extent of above half a mile in length is covered with boats and barges, which serve, together with the banks of the river, as the market place for the goods they bring. Many are loaded with woodenware from Upper Austria, of which some, as common casks and rough besoms, are of so trifling a value that it is difficult to conceive how they repay the expence of carriage. In other vessels, or upon the shore, gaily painted household furniture of every species is displayed, tempting the country people by its rich colours to purchase.

" Below the bridge the ordinary weekly market is held, rendered at this time more lively by the sale of delicious water-melons, of which immense heaps lie piled upon the shore, and many boats and waggons are entirely laden with them. They are sold for two or three kreutzers each, and scarcely a child or a beggar is seen in the streets who does not satisfy both his hunger and his thirst with this delightful fruit.

" Of the places of amusement, the theatre is most frequented; and, on Sundays and holidays, the people flock to the

forest belonging to the town,—a small, but agreeable, pleasure-ground, where the lower classes amuse themselves with dancing in a saloon for that purpose. The garden of Graf Ortzy, at the distance of three or four English miles from Pesth, is open to the public; and there are several gardens in the suburbs. The public baths likewise become a place of great resort to all the lower classes, being esteemed both as a pleasure and as the means of health."

Having thus, nearly in the words of one anonymous Hungarian writer, drawn a picture of this singular fair, I will now copy a passage from another, a writer in the *Hungarian Miscellany*, descriptive of the character displayed by some of those who come to traffic at the fair.

"The manner in which the Hungarian peasant conducts himself in the sale of his produce is, when compared to that of the Sclavonian, the German, and the Jew, with whom he is surrounded, remarkable and interesting. The Sclavonian enlarges on the excellence and cheapness of his ware, with palpable and suspicious eagerness. The German dresses out his merchandise, turns it from one side to the other, and presents himself to the purchasers with a commanding self-sufficiency. The Jew swears with heart and soul that he will injure no man,—and the Raitzer is stern, silent, and unaccommodating; but, on that account, his characteristic and fiery eye pleads with the greater eloquence. The Hungarian alone keeps himself perfectly passive in his dealings. He allows his goods to be inspected,—answers shortly and directly to the question, and attempts not to impose either by words or artifice. You perceive by his embarrassment that he is unaccustomed to low arts,—his good temper evidently counteracts the feeling of poverty, which is therefore born with ease and content. Shirt and skin, and little else is to be seen, except his long hair, which

hangs loosely over his shoulders; and all these are scarcely to be distinguished from each other, so disguised are they by filth and negligence. The appearance in drizzling weather of the open square at the entrance of the *Königs-strasse*, which is the district of the Jews, is little more attractive than the quarter frequented by the peasants. Whoever feels inclined to study the character of this people, will now find an ample opportunity. Here they swarm together like bees, fix themselves on the passenger who appears likely to trade with them, or traffic amongst themselves with affected grimaces and assumed appearance of activity; while they look, with their eyes turned both towards the right and towards the left, on a hundred objects at a time."

I have already observed, that the manufactures of Hungary are of little importance; yet they deserve some notice. Previously to entering upon this subject, I shall, however, insert the most correct account I am able to collect of the weights and measures used in this kingdom,—a subject of great moment when speaking of matters connected with commerce and manufactures.

Long Measure.

The Vienna long measure, fixed by Maria Theresa, is commonly used in Hungary also, and becomes every day more general.

1 Austrian post mile	4000 Vienna klafters, or 24,888 English feet
1 Vienna klafter -	6 feet, or 1·896 French mètres
1 foot (*schuh*) -	12 inches, or 0·314 French mètres, or 12·45 English inches
1 inch (*zoll*) - -	4 *striche*, or 0·026 French mètres
1 *striche* - - -	2 *achtel*

1 hand (*faust*) - 4 *zoll*
1 ell - - 2·465 feet, or 2·557 English feet.

There is a measure used in Upper Hungary and Transylvania, in the linen trade, and amongst the common people, called the *Small Ell*, which is to the common ell in the proportion of four to five.

The Hungarian mile is quite an undetermined measure; and thirteen Hungarian miles are sometimes arbitrarily estimated as a geographical degree. An Hungarian mile, on the plains of this country, often forms the journey of half a day. By means of the establishment of post stations, however, the post mile is becoming gradually adopted; and, in writings, the geographical mile, fifteen to the degree, is generally the measure which is employed.

It may be well to mention in this place, that the French mètre is = 39·37100 English inches = 3·281 English feet = nearly 1 yard 1½ nail = 443·2959 lines French = ·513074 toise; also that 1 inch English = ·0354 mètres; and that 1000 feet = 305 mètres nearly.

Square Measure.

1 *joch* in Hungary, according to the Urbarial calculation, is a piece of land, the sowing of which requires two Pressburg metzen of grain.

——— According to the statute measure, it consists either of 1100, 1200, or 1300 square klafters;

——— or sometimes, like the Austrian *erdtag*, consists of 1600 square klafters, or so much as a plough can work in a day, or as a man can sow with four Pressburg metzen of grain. But the joch most commonly employed bears such a proportion to the English acre, that 213·3 *joch* are equal to 312 acres.

Vineyards are estimated by *vierteln, pfunden, motiken, hauern,*

and other measures, which refer either to the labour required in their cultivation, or the quantity of produce.

Solid Measure.

I. *Dry Measure.*

1 Pressburg metze (*kila*) was formerly equal to 75 Pressburg *halben* of water.

——————— equal to 2 cubic schuh, Vienna measure, 61,492 French litres, or 3753 cubic inches English.

——————— equal to 1 Vienna metze.

1 halbe is equal to $1\frac{1}{2}$ *pfund* and 100 *grans* of Vienna measure, which is equal to 46 cubic *zolls.*

1 Pressburg metze at present, as fixed in 1807, is equal to 64 halbes.

1 metze of Pesth is equal $1\frac{1}{2}$ of Pressburg.

$\frac{1}{2}$ Pressburg metze is called in the low country a *Véka.*

——————————— at Pesth a *Drittel.*

——————————— in the north of Hungary a *Koretz.*

1 *kübel* in the north is equal to 2 *koretz*, or 1 Pressburg metze.

1 *kübel* at Debretzin, and other places, is equal to 2 *kilas*, or 4 *vékas*, that is, two Pressburg metzen.

It may be here observed, that while the Vienna metze contains 3753 cubic inches, the Winchester bushel contains only 2150, so that the Vienna metze is nearly equal to $1\frac{7}{8}$ Winchester bushels, or 45.83 Vienna metzen = 80 bushels.

II. *Fluid Measure* varies greatly in Hungary.

1 *eimer*, at Ædenburg and Vienna, is either 84 halbes, or more commonly 80 halbes, which is equal to 56·575 French litres, or 3452 English cubic inches.

1 *eimer*, at Pressburg, Pesth, and Ofen, is 64 halbes, or more

commonly 60 halbes, which is equal to 42·430 French litres. Also, the Ædenburg *halbe* is to that of Pressburg as 4 to 3. So likewise, in the north, 4 large or spirit halbes equal 5 small or wine halbes.

The Tokay wine cask is equal to 180 halbes.

The *antal* is equal to $\frac{1}{2}$ the wine cask.

About Debretzin the great *eimer* is equal to 100 halbes.

——————— the small *eimer* is equal to 50 halbes.

——————— the *kanta* is equal to 10 halbes.

The *pinte*, or Pressburg and Ædenburg *mass*, is equal to 2 halbes, or $86\frac{1}{5}$ cubic inches.

The halbe is equal to 2 *seitels*, equal 0·707 French litres.

The seitel is equal to 2 rumpels, or 0·358 French litres.

The French litre is a cubic measure containing 61.02800 English cubic inches, equal to 2.113 wine pints.

While one English wine gallon contains 351 cubic inches, one Vienna eimer contains 3452.

The *Weights* correspond nearly with those of Vienna, except amongst the Jews, who have some peculiar weights.

In trading with the Turks and Greeks the *ocka* is employed, equal in weight to $2\frac{1}{2}$ pfund.

About Temeswar 1 Pressburg metze is equal to 40 *ocka*.

——————— 1 Metze of Pesth ——— to 60 ocka.

——————— 1 Schineck ——————— to 80 ocka.

1 *stein*, in Upper Hungary, is equal to 20 pfund.

In 1808 a law was passed, enforcing the Pressburg long and solid measure throughout Hungary.

The Vienna weights adopted in Hungary are,

1 centner	100 pfund.
1 pfund	32 loth.

1 loth	4 quentchen.
1 quentchen	4 sechszehnteln (sixteenths).
1 sechszehntel	15 gran.

The pfund is to the French livre nearly in the proportion of 1167 to 1020; that is, one pfund is nearly equal to $1\frac{1}{6}$ of a livre; and 854 English pounds make 690 pfund of Vienna.

But to resume the subject of manufactures. The Hungarians, though in the strictest sense an agricultural people, and little attached even to those manufactures with which the women of such countries usually occupy a considerable portion of their time, are not altogether neglectful of them, and from the high country of Leptau, Arva, Trentschin, Thurotz, Zolyom, Gömör, a part of Zemplin, and particularly the Scharoscher Comitatus; Schwartner asserts, that nearly 10,000,000 ells of coarse linen are yearly brought to the market. The Zips, however, is the principal district for this manufacture, yielding, besides what is consumed in the families of the peasants and citizens who manufacture it, nearly 6,000,000 ells yearly. This is chiefly purchased by Greeks, Servians, and other travelling merchants, and is carried by them, either through the medium of the Debretzin markets, into Transylvania, or by Pesth towards the Banat.

There are about forty paper-mills in Hungary, but the article they manufacture is so indifferent, that all the finer paper is imported.

The cotton manufactory, formerly established at Cseklés, is quite relinquished, and that which afterwards arose at Sassin, and is said to have yielded annually from 54,000 to 60,000 pieces, has nearly shared the same fate. A manufactory of cotton has likewise been established at Ædenburg within a few years, which has hitherto succeeded but little.

At Ædenburg and at Fiume, sugar refineries have been established. What has been the fate of the latter, which for many years was said to refine 35,000 centners annually, I do not know; but that of Ædenburg, which was entirely destroyed by the action of the Continental system, was again in 1815 restored to activity.

Spirit is distilled from grain, plumbs, or other fruits, in the small way, by the peasants, and at the little inns to a considerable extent; and there are distilleries of importance at Fiumé, at Ujlak, Pilis, Csaba, Pesth, Pressburg, and near Rosenau.

Oil mills are established at Pressburg, at Kis-Szántó, near Grosswardein, at Pesth, and to the south of Ofen, in which, besides the oil drawn from the linseed, other finer sorts are obtained from the seeds of the rape, the poppy, and the sunflower. Tobacco and snuff form a considerable article of commerce. In 1802, not less than 17,000 centners of tobacco, dried and in leaf, were purchased from the growers by the agents of government.

The cloth and woollen-stuff manufactory has likewise made but little progress; so that, in the year 1802, since which the advance has been but small, the import from the neighbouring countries amounted to

349,035 ells of fine and second cloth,
663,203 —— of ordinary cloth,
491,165 —— of coarse flannel,
217,000 —— of woollen stuff,
110,011 —— of mixed wool and cotton,

to the value altogether of, at least, 4,644,555 florins. Amongst the few articles of woollen stuff yielded by the country, are to be mentioned, the bed-coverings, manufactured at Dotis and at Gyöngyös; flannel in Stuhlweissenburg, and many parts of the Zips; heavy water-proof cloth for cloaks, made amongst

the peasants, and some other coarse articles made by the Croatians and Sclavonians. Some cloth of a better quality is manufactured at Modern, Tyrnau, around Trentschin, at Skalitz, Ædenburg, and Günss, as well as by the private exertions of a few of the more powerful and patriotic nobles, of which none have been more successful than the manufacture at Gács, instituted by Graf Forgacs, and since formed into a company by the royal privilege.

The growth and manufacture of silk has been much encouraged, at different periods, during the last half century, but has never reached to any important extent; and when in its most flourishing state, there were probably never above two hundred centners of silk, either of foreign or domestic growth, manufactured in Hungary. The chief towns which partook in this branch were Grosswardein, Pressburg, Altofen, and Pesth, but all the manufactures of these articles have greatly declined.

Articles in silver and copper scarcely form an object worthy of attention, and neither are sufficient to supply the home consumption. Iron in Gömör, Zips, and Liptau, is of greater importance; and the steel of Diós-Györ is found to be remarkably fine:—still, however, the quantity of both is small in proportion to the consumption, and Vienna and Styria are largely called upon to make up the deficiency.

There are several manufactories of common glass distributed in the country; and potteries to a considerable extent in the districts of Bihar, Neograd, Comorn, Pressburg, Liptau, and Gömör. The town of Túr is much concerned in this fabric, and Ofen, Caschau, and Dotis, yield a large supply of serviceable stone-ware. The manufacture of tobacco-pipe heads at Debretzin has already been mentioned. The earthenware manufactory of Holitsch is one of the most esteemed in the Austrian dominions. It employs 76 workmen, besides

the directors of the different processes, and the annual sale amounts to nearly 200,000 florins.

I have thus traced the outline of almost all the strictly manufacturing industry of Hungary; which, compared with that of any other part of the Austrian possessions, or viewed with reference to the extent of the country, is truly insignificant.

During the late tumultuous period, which for several years destroyed the bonds by which the different countries of the world had been united, it was adopted as the policy of the continental powers to render themselves independent, not only of distant colonies, but of one another; and each country endeavoured to supply from its own resources a thousand materials of which the variety of their climates, and of their soil, seemed almost to prohibit the hope; and where it was acknowledged that the material itself was beyond their attainment, some substitute was eagerly pursued. That attempts of this kind have frequently been attended with permanent advantage to a country, cannot be denied, more particularly where they have been directed to the improvement or extension of that class of products, for which the situation and circumstances of the country are evidently favourable. That the thinly peopled wilds of Hungary are advantageously covered with the fine woolled sheep of Spain, is almost as obvious as the contrary with respect to the rich meadows in our own populous and manufacturing country. But the general principle of rendering each country independent is, in itself, neither magnanimous, nor consistent with what appears to have been designed, when we regard the progress of civilization, and the constant tendency which every exertion of mankind evinces towards cementing a general connection and dependence.

In attempts of this kind, the Austrian dominions have largely participated; and Hungary has taken such part, as its con-

nection with that country and its active spirit of improvement would lead us to expect.

Sugar, manna, and coffee, silk and cotton, olive oil, and indigo, have each been sought, either themselves or in substitute, and a short detail of some of these attempts may not be unacceptable.

Of all these articles, sugar is that which has excited the most attention, and it has been pursued with considerable success. It is well known that the different species of beet were at one time much cultivated through the whole of France, Germany, and Russia, with the view of obtaining sugar. In the Austrian dominions, many of the first attempts were made in Bohemia, where, about the year 1800, Count Wrbna cultivated the beet largely, and established a manufactory at Korzovitz. His example was followed by several proprietors, both in Bohemia and the other Austrian dependencies. The well known difficulty of obtaining crystallized sugar from the syrup of this plant, though considerably diminished by the investigation of Achard in Silicia, has always been an objection to the employment of it. Upon the whole, however, no substitute has been yet found more applicable to general use.

The idea advanced by Parmentier in 1802, and afterwards by Proust and others, of obtaining sugar from the juice of the grape, was not overlooked; and Dr Ries, at the desire of the Palatine, instituted experiments in the neighbourhood of Ofen in 1810; and the same year the Austrian government proposed a list of questions upon the subject, for the solution of Baron Jacquin.

The general results of the investigations into which this eminent philosopher entered, led to a conclusion that the possessors of vineyards, yielding but inferior wines, might make more profit, and that in a shorter time after the vintage, by convert-

ing the juice of the grape into syrup, than by making wine; and that the syrup thus produced would come to the market at a price which would enable it to compete with West Indian molasses. The mode of preparation which he recommended was as follows.

The juice of the grape should be employed before any fermentation has commenced, as it is found that, after this process has taken place, the quantity of sugar is very much diminished; and, with the view of preventing fermentation, where it is not possible to use the juice immediately, concentrated sulphuric acid should be added to about one-hundredth part of the weight of the juice, by which addition it may be kept for several months. In the choice of juice, it is proved that the inferior grapes are generally to be preferred.

The juice is first to be boiled, either in small quantities, or in vessels so flat that the whole may be quickly heated, and even before it has risen to the boiling point, the coagulable vegetable matter will ascend to the surface, and must be carefully removed. When taken from the fire, powdered chalk is added in the proportion of about twenty-four loths to each half eimer; but, if sulphuric acid have been employed, so much more will be required as is equal to twice the weight of the acid. It is now again subjected to heat, and the boiling continued till the fluid is reduced to one half, and, while boiling, is poured into wooden tubs, where it remains for twenty-four hours, during which time the chalk combined with the citric and tartaric acids subsides; but the chalk which is united to the malic acid forms a soluble compound, which always gives a slightly pungent taste to the syrup. The liquor poured off is again boiled, either with the addition of white of egg or not, till it loses half of its quantity, the scum being often removed with care. It is then poured into wooden vessels, in which it

stands for some days till it is clear, when the process is complete. It is observed, that the syrup is clearer, though less in quantity, when the sulphuric acid has been used. When prepared with the acid, one eimer of the juice yields 20 pfunds of syrup, which is about half the strength of sugar; but Baron Jacquin was not able to obtain from this syrup any well crystallized sugar: in its most perfect state, it always remained soft, and resembled congealed honey.

Another plant, from which sugar was obtained, was the maize. Dr Neuhold, of Gratz in Styria, was amongst the first who attempted to procure this substitute, and, in the fall of the year 1811, he prepared 24 centners of syrup from the stalk of the ripe maize; many others following his example in the south of Hungary and Styria, where this plant is much cultivated. But it was soon found, that the quantity yielded by the stalks in that advanced period was so small, that it would be necessary, either to employ them when the grain was unripe, thus sacrificing the harvest, or to relinquish the pursuit. Ten centners of the stalks yielded but three eimers of juice, which was then to be subjected to nearly the same process of evaporation and refining adopted for obtaining syrup from the grape; and, moreover, no crystallized sugar could be formed, which did not return to the state of syrup on the slightest exposure to moisture.

No substitute, however, was looked to with greater expectation than the sugar obtained from the maple. It had long been known that the Americans employed the juice of this tree in procuring sugar; and some of the German peasants had, for a century, been in the habit of drawing the sap from maple-trees which grew near their cottages, either using it as a beverage for themselves, or as a rich food for their bees. Prince Lichtenstein, as early as 1803, had been collecting authentic informa-

tion from America. In 1808, Jacquin was called upon to give an official report upon the utility of adopting this product generally; but, in 1810, the minds of the Austrian public appear to have been first seriously directed to the subject by a statement published by the Carinthian Agricultural Society at Klagenfurt, respecting Hermbstadt's investigation on the maple sugar at Berlin; and inviting the members to pay attention to the subject.

The Austrian government again interested themselves; and in this case, likewise, questions were proposed to Baron Jacquin and Mr Jordan, who gave it as their opinion, that, though the manufacture on a large scale could scarcely be expected to succeed, a great deal of the consumption of foreign sugar might be prevented by the domestic manufacture of this substitute. It was at first greatly doubted whether a sufficient number of maple-trees were to be found in the empire to supply any considerable quantity; but the result of a partial enumeration served, in a great degree, to remove this objection: for it was found, that, in the military frontier provinces of Hungary and Transylvania, there were 839,360 maples of different species, of which 155,659 were above 25 years of age, and were, therefore, deemed fit to yield sap. In the provinces of Upper and Lower Austria alone, there were 264,248 above the required age, and of smaller trees 607,612. On the single estate of Tachau, in Bohemia, there were found 17,094,154 trees of the *Acer Pseudoplatanus*, and 18,916 of the *Acer Platanoides*, of which 54,110 had acquired the age of 25 years. And Prince Esterhazy has on his Hungarian estates whole forests nearly composed of maples, particularly the *Acer tartaricum*. Prince Auersperg set on foot a manufactory in 1810 at Liebau, in Bohemia, under the care of Böhringer his forest-master. He prepared the first year about 70 pfund of well crystallized sugar,

but the following year, which was by no means favourable, he obtained 35 centners. The Prince also planted, during the years 1810, 1811, 144,000 maples, and in all is said to have planted above a million. His example was followed by a great many landed proprietors in Bohemia; and even he seems to have been anticipated by Prince Lichtenstein, who had, in the year 1808, 30,000 trees of the *Acer saccharinum*, of six years growth, flourishing at Eisgrub. Moravia and Styria were no less active. The Agricultural Society of Prague took the subject early under their protection, and extensive trials were made in Szalater Comitatus in Hungary. The Austrian government appointed a commission with the view of investigating the subject; and trials were instituted in February and March 1811 on 300 of the old trees (*Acer campestre*) growing in the Prater at Vienna.

Nothing can be more simple than the whole process adopted. Towards the end of February, or the beginning of March, two or three holes, according to the size of the tree, are bored to the depth of four inches, with a common gimblet, ten or fifteen inches from the ground; a little pipe of wood or reed is inserted, and a vessel placed to collect the sap which flows. The tree continues to give out its sap for some weeks, during which time two hundred mass of the liquid is often procured from a single tree, and the temperature of the atmosphere found most conducive to its production is five degrees of Reaumur. The sap, before it has undergone any fermentation,—a process which may be retarded by boiling,—is evaporated till it assumes the thickness of a syrup, when it is suffered to stand, and shortly, without any farther trouble, crystallizes into a perfectly good sugar; a manufacture which every cottager may carry on for his own use.

With respect to the quantity of sugar obtained from the sap

of the maple, amongst the most productive experiments was that of Dr Stohr, in Bohemia, who from thirty-four maples *(waldahorn)* procured only 429 mass of sap, which yielded, however, 26 pfunds 9 loths of crystallized sugar, being nearly in the proportion of two loths to the mass. In the experiments made upon the *feldahorn (Acer campestre)* in the Prater, the same quantity of sap did not produce above one loth of sugar. Böhringer found that thirty mass of the sap of the *Aeer Platanoides* yielded one pfund of sugar, and that about thirty-two mass from the *Acer Pseudoplatanus* gave the same quantity.

As far as these experiments were carried, they seemed to promise very favourably, and the more so, as the process was extremely simple, and the sugar procured, in all respects, resembled that obtained from the sugar cane. But the approaching crisis of the war, and the increasing poverty, both of individuals and of government, suddenly checked the ardour with which all such objects had been pursued; and though these substitutes for the sugar of the East and West Indies have been locally adopted, the Austrians are still far from depending upon their own resources for any considerable proportion of their supply. The whole quantity of syrup and sugar obtained from the different substitutes in the German Austrian provinces, during the year 1812, amounted to above 915 centners of syrup, and 237 centners of sugar.

Coffee was another article for which substitutes were adopted. I do not know of any particular experiment having been made in Hungary with this view, and the different substances employed in Austria were, in general, but distant imitations of the true coffee. The most successful was the seed of the *Astragalus bœticus*, which, about the year 1810, was a good deal cultivated in Moravia for private consumption, and was

probably introduced from Sweden or Denmark, where it is not uncommonly employed; and the tuberous root of the *Cyperus esculentus* has been partially used in Hungary for the same purpose.

Another attempt, in which Hungary was more exclusively interested, was the cultivation of cotton. This, however, is of a somewhat less recent date, having originated as early as the year 1782, when Christopher and Syrill Nako, who had been cotton-dealers in Turkey, purchased estates at Gross-Szent-Miklos, and Marienfeld, brought labourers from Turkey, and sowed on the following year many acres with cotton. The early capsules ripened well, and yielded good cotton, but those which succeeded were injured by the frost. They attempted to bring them to maturity by artificial heat, as is often done even in Macedonia. The cotton, however, was inferior,—fuel was dear,—and the price of the article at that time so low, that they were obliged to relinquish their object. The Emperor Joseph was pleased with their attempt, and they received gold medals as an expression of his approbation.

In 1795, the trial was renewed by Zulechner, in the frontiers of the Banat, and by Kengyel at Pancsova. Trattinich, an esteemed botanist of Vienna, wrote in 1797 encouraging the pursuit. A person of the name of Jettim had an estate put into his hands for the purpose of this culture, by the present Emperor; and some other attempts were made, but they all proved unsuccessful. When, however, the progress of war rendered it impossible to procure the East Indian and Brazilian produce, the cotton of the Levant rose from 40 florins the centner, its former price, to above 600 florins. This appeared to afford a favourable opportunity for renewing the cultivation of it in Hungary; and, about the year 1807 and 1808, many trials were made. The Commander-General of the Banat, Field-

Marshal Duka, in particular, laid before government specimens of his own growth in 1808, which nearly equalled the best West Indian cotton. The government took the matter warmly under their protection, and, in 1810, determined to make extensive trials in the military frontiers of Banat, around Peterwardein, and in Croatia; and, with a view of instructing the people upon the subject, had the work of Lasteyries, on the culture of cotton in France, translated into German.

In 1811, the results of some of these trials, none of which, however, singly yielded above 30 pfunds of cotton, were sufficiently favourable to induce government to persist; and it was ordered that every township and hamlet in the German Banat regiment should devote one joch of land to the trial, while rewards were promised to the successful. The subsequent history of these experiments was little more than a series of failures, the seasons proved unfavourable,—the state of the war interfered,—and scarcely a trace of this culture now remains, though a few of the nobility endeavour, within the limits of their gardens, to naturalize this foreign plant.

A person of the name of Angelo proposed, in 1809, in Austria, to manufacture an article as a substitute for cotton, from certain wild plants. The government gave him a building near the Danube, and advanced 20,000 florins, promising much more assistance and remuneration, if, in the first year, he should produce 500 centners of his raw material; but he was bound, at the expiration of a certain time, to make his whole process known, and give instruction in the manufacture. The war interrupted this attempt likewise. In 1811 it was renewed, but as yet without any marked success.

Indigo was another article, which, if possible, was to be superseded. No less than thirty-two substitutes were found in Austria, but that on which the greatest hope was placed was the

woad; and the ordinary mode of making woad balls of the fermented leaves, has, both in Bohemia, in Hungary, and in the Banat, given place to other processes, by which a substance, most nearly resembling indigo, is procured at a moderate expence. In the Banat it was found, in some experiments, that a single joch would yield 300 pfunds of this indigo in the year, each centner of leaves giving 1 pfund. This is a product which still seems to promise well. Some of the most successful experiments have been instituted at Käsmark and Pered.

Amongst the numerous vegetables found in Hungary which are valuable as dyeing materials, the *Rhus cotinus* deserves mention, as having been found in many parts, more particularly in the Banat, in such quantities as to have become an article of commerce. It has, however, been principally employed in tanning. Baron Jacquin, who was called upon to give an official account of this plant, says:—"In the Banat they appear, according to the information I have received, not to understand the use of this wood as a yellow dye, but to employ it very much for dyeing black and in tanning. The inhabitants have been long accustomed in fine weather, in the month of August, to cut the young shoots of this plant, which they call *Ruja*, to carry them to some clean spot of ground, and spread them in the sun, like hay, to dry; after which they are trodden into pieces by horses' feet. From the young branches and leaves thus pounded, a tan is formed, which is carefully preserved in a dry place till September or October, when they sell it in part to Jews and speculators, and partly to tanners and Morocco-leather-makers, who, for 226 pfunds of the article, pay from 20 to 25 florins. These purchasers do not employ the ruja for dyeing, but merely for tanning and preparing the different species of Morocco-leather. A considerable part of this ruja is sold into Turkey; the greater part, however, for

consumption in the country, being brought to Becskeret, Neusatz, Werschetz, Temeswar, Esseg, and Pesth. The process which the manufacturers adopt is the same as that employed in tanning Morocco-leather with real sumach, or with galls. The ruja is boiled in water; then the skins are sewed together, two by two, filled with this boiled vegetable, and placed in layers upon each other. The decoction is poured upon them, and they are suffered to stand three days; after which time the tanning of the leather is complete."

The inhabitants of the frontiers employ the ruja in dyeing their leathers and woollens black, probably in conjunction with sulphat of iron.

Many thousand centners of the wood of this plant are every year imported into Austria from Hungary, chiefly, however, from the Weissenburg Comitatus, whence it is brought in stalks of about two inches thick, with some roots and branches, but quite stript of its bark, and is sold at 50 florins the centner to the dyers, under the name of Hungarian yellow-wood. It appears to be quite necessary in forming the delicate shades of yellow and green. Much comes likewise out of Walachia and Moldavia. In 1806, not less than 14,670 centners passed the Transylvanian frontiers.

To relate all the attempts which were made to discover substitutes for the different drugs would be endless. One plant, however, was introduced, which, for a time, promised well. This was the *Oryza mutica*, or mountain rice, obtained from the northern parts of China by the assiduity of Dr de Carro of Vienna. The great advantages which it promised arose from the situations in which it would flourish, and the fact of its not requiring marshy lands, which are so destructive to the health of those who are engaged in the cultivation of the common rice. In Lombardy and the Banat, experiments upon

this grain proved very satisfactory, and, had not the same causes which put a stop to other similar improvements checked this likewise, it would probably have been extensively adopted.

It is not, however, to the manufactures, nor to the numerous substitutes for imported articles, nor to any other casual product of the vegetable or animal kingdom, which must always be limited in extent and application, that we are to look for the riches and resources of Hungary. Her mines have yielded their wealth with an unsparing hand; but in her vineyards, her harvests, and her flocks, are placed her great and almost unbounded resources. I shall, therefore, shortly state a few unconnected data to illustrate the extent to which these different objects are already productive, first observing, as an undoubted fact, that the wealth of the country is, in every point, capable of vast improvement, if means were adopted to facilitate exportation, and thus encourage the grower, by affording more certain markets for his produce.

Schwartner has estimated the annual vintage of Hungary at 18,000,000 eimers, which is more than one-half of the whole vintage of Austria and its provinces, estimated by Blumenbach at 32,873,971 eimers. The vineyards immediately around Ofen yield, in tolerable years, 230,000 eimers; those around Pesth 30,000; the district of Tokay 160,000; the vineyards of Syrmien 560,000, and 70,000 eimers of spirit distilled from the grapes, after the wine is drawn from them. Grosswardein yields 200,000 eimers of white, and Erlau an equal quantity of red wine. The vineyards of Werschetz, in the Banat, give 80,000 eimers annually; the Honther Comitatus 40,000; the vintage around the town of Ædenburg amounts to 32,000; that of Rusth to 9000; and thus we might doubtless proceed till we had fully substantiated the assertion of Schwartner.

The consumption of this article in Hungary is very great, but the export is also large, as may be inferred from the commercial tables of Austria Proper in the year 1807, where it appears that, amongst the goods exported, were,

Common Tokay wine, 2813 casks,	worth	168,780 fl.
Tokay Ausbruch, - -	worth	10,800
Other kinds of Ausbruch, 124 eimers,	worth	3,720
Common Hungarian wine, 39,077 eimers,	worth	474,462

Thus amounting to 657,762 fl. a very large proportion of the whole export of wine, which amounted, during that year, to 846,708 florins; and this was, of course, but a small part of the whole wine imported from Hungary, for a large quantity is consumed in Austria; and it was before this time, as early as 1804, that the Emperor, to encourage the consumption of Austrian and Hungarian wines, had forbidden any foreign wines to appear at his table.

With respect to grain, Schwartner, and all the authors who have written on this subject, has been obliged to draw his conclusions from conjecture, rather than from any actual data. They do not, however, scruple to advance 60,000,000 Pressburg metzen as a probable, and by no means an exaggerated, statement of the whole grain produced, besides many thousand metzen of Indian corn, and at least 10,000 metzen of rice. The annual export, in grain, amounts to nearly two and a half millions of metzen.

Sheep and cattle form another very important branch of the Hungarian produce. There are, at least, 6,000,000 of the improved sheep, and 4,000,000 of the unimproved, feeding constantly in this country, the wool of which yields a large annual return to the proprietors.

Extensive droves of horned cattle are sold in all the fairs

and markets, and a great number pass by Ædenburg, and the other western markets, into Austria. In 1802, the cattle driven from Hungary sold for 6,000,000 florins; and the sum paid for swine sold into other countries, amounts annually to 895,357 florins.

The communication by water between the different parts of Hungary, and between Hungary and more distant countries, are subjects which have most deservedly occupied a great share of attention; but the numerous projects to which these speculations have given rise, have quickly fallen into neglect, either from the natural difficulties which have occurred in attempts to put them into execution, or from want of sufficient funds for completing projects, which, although far from impossible in themselves, always require a large expenditure. Even the passage of the Danube to the Black Sea is still much embarrassed, both by the difficulty of navigation in some parts, and by the jealousy of the Turks; and several bold speculations, which have been entered upon by individuals, have proved unfortunate.

Amongst the numerous authors who have written on this subject, Joseph Schemerl, who wrote in 1810 upon the general communication by water between Austria and other countries of Europe, has detailed the projects which had been advanced; and the following is a view of the proposed junctions of the Danube with other rivers, which would indeed, were they capable of being carried into effect, connect Hungary and the whole Austrian dominions, in a most important manner, with every part of the continent.

First, The *Moldau* to be united to the *Danube*, either by means of the Aist entering the Danube near Mathausen, or by the Camp entering the Danube at Krems, and the Laschnitz entering the Moldau by Moldautheim.

Secondly, The *Danube* and *Elbe* to be united by means of the March, or Morava, the Sazawa and the Erlitz joining the Elbe at Königgratz.

Thirdly, The *Weichsel* to be united to the *Danube* by means of the March, the Becsova and a small river falling into the Weichsel at Oswiczin.

Fourthly, The *Theiss*, by means of the Emperor Francis's canal, united to the Danube and Drave, and then by the projected Bukowaier canal, to the Save, and thus the navigation continued by the Kulpa to *Karlstadt* and *Fiume*, and by the Save to *Leibach* and *Triest*, or the navigation to Fiume may be completed by continuing along the *Drave*, to the point where the great projected canal, between Vienna and that town, joins the Drave.

Fifthly, The great communication between the *Danube* and the *Adriatic*, by a canal furnished with no less than 504 locks.

There is still another great canal projected to pass from Pesth, direct to Szolnok, thus uniting the Theiss and the Danube, much higher than by the canal of the Emperor Francis. Of this a complete survey was made by order of the Palatine, by Baron Podmanitzky, and General Mailland, the result of which was very favourable, both as to the levels, and the supply of water.

In reference, however, to the internal communication established in Hungary,—to Pesth as it is connected with the commerce of Hungary,—and to that commerce in general, I could never hope, from the rapid and superficial views to which a traveller is confined, to offer any thing so acceptable as what will be found in the following extracts from the valuable stores which Schwartner has collected. They contain a lively representation of many very important facts, and will throw much

light on the internal condition, and the external relations of Hungary.

" Pesth has become the central point both of the inland and foreign trade of this kingdom, from its natural and political situation; and, from long custom, the emporium of Hungarian merchandise. From this city great commercial roads lie over Komorn, Raab, and Mosony, towards Austria, Moravia, and Moravian Silesia; by Kaschau, Eperies, Leutschau, and Kesmark, towards Gallicia; through Debretzin, Segedin, and Temeswar, towards Transylvania; through Eszek, Neusatz, and Semlin, towards Turkey; by Kanisa to Croatia; by Carlstadt to Fiume, Dalmatia, and Italy; and over Stuhlweissenburg and Pettau to Styria, Triest, and Fiume.

" Smaller commercial roads are in the east; the road from Temeswar over Debretzin, into the Marmaros to Zips, and by Kaschau to Gallicia. In the west, that from Vienna over Ædenburg to Warasdin, Agram, &c.

" The central point to the east is Debretzin; to the west the towns of Warasdin, Agram, and Karlstadt, which are much inferior, although Karlstadt, on account of its situation with respect to Fiume, is the most active trading place in Croatia, and is quite necessary to the communication between Hungary and the Adriatic. In all the different stations upon these commercial roads, merchants are found, who either retail to the consumers, or transmit the goods still farther.

" The great difference of climate between the north and the south of Hungary, and the consequent variety in its crops and different degrees of fertility, produce a considerable internal commerce. In the mountain and mining district they have no corn. Above Kaschau there are no vineyards. Beyond Gömör no tobacco grows; and, at the foot of the Krivans, fruit-trees cease to flourish. In the middle of the country, again,

on the immeasurable plains of Cumania and Jazyga and their neighbourhood, there is a want of iron and stone, fuel, timber, salt, manufactured goods, and even grain; and still more is there a deficiency in the produce of the ordinary handicraft trades. Pesth, which, during the last twenty years, has raised itself so rapidly, is in want of almost every thing which is yielded in the northern or the southern districts, to supply the consumption of its industrious population. The situation of this town, in the middle of the kingdom, with the Danube flowing past it, secures its prosperity; and the fair, which occurs four times yearly, and equals the most important fairs of Germany, must be a ground of alarm for Debretzin, which is too far from the navigable rivers, either the Theiss or Danube. It is to be lamented, that the navigation, in the ascent of the Danube, is so difficult;—that in the Theiss, which flows with a more moderate stream, the returning navigation is prevented beyond Segedin, on account of the low and marshy land by which it is surrounded, preventing the use of horses in drawing the vessels; —that the river Gran is only navigable at particular seasons of the year;—and that the Wagh cannot be navigated against the stream. The Save and the Drave are of greater importance for the foreign than the internal trade; and the projects which have been lately entered upon for rendering the Körös and the Morava, or March, navigable, are not yet carried into execution.

"The chief canals which have been brought to any degree of perfection, are the Bega Canal, which passes from Facset through the whole Banat, by Temeswar to Becskerek, a distance of sixteen German miles, or seventy-three English, from which vessels may pass by the Bega into the Theiss near its junction with the Danube; and that called the Emperor Francis's Canal, which was finished in 1801, and joins by a course of thir-

teen and a half German miles, or sixty-two English, the Danube, with the Theiss, passing from Monostorszeg, near Zombor, to Földvar. This canal has a fall of twenty-seven feet between the Danube and the Theiss, and is provided with five locks."

The following is an extract from a report published in the Vienna Journal, containing an account of the trade carried on upon this canal from 1st November 1806, to 31st October 1807. The number of vessels, without freight, amounted to 331; with freight to 582, each carrying from 6000 to 7000 centners, and one nearly 8000. The articles with which they were loaded consisted of

Wheat	412,557½	metzen.	
Wheat and Rye mixed	92,681½	do.	
Maize	1,505¼	do.	
Millet	36,360¼	do.	
Barley	126,193½	do.	
Oats	423,353	do.	
Wine	56,596½	eimers.	
Salt	306,776	centners.	
Copper and Silver	1,583	centners,	25 pfd.
Wood and Timber	88,419	do.	75 pfd.
Stone for Buildings and Millstones	8,068	do.	
Lime	14,681	do.	25 pfd.
Coal and Pitch	3,336	do.	
Tobacco	40,343	do.	
House, Cellar, and Kitchen Furniture	12,222	do.	
Hides, Galls, and Bark, for tanning	1,304	do.	75 pfd.
Meal, Fruit, and Provisions	2,909	do.	75 pfd.
Glass	324	do.	75 pfd.

The trade upon this canal must, of course, fluctuate very much, depending upon the state of the crops, and other casual circumstances. Thus, by the published reports, it appears to have been much less in 1814 than in 1806. The whole quantity of grain was then only 979,492 metzen; wine 18,221 eimers; salt 94,467 centners; wood, building materials, raw metals, tobacco, meal, artillery and ammunition, 816,952$\frac{3}{9}$ centners. The number of vessels amounted, in this year, to 457 with freight, and 214 empty,—the largest of the vessels carried 7783 centners of artillery.

"The trade from the south towards the north of Hungary is attended with heavy charges, because it must be chiefly conducted by land carriage; and the roads in the north are mountainous, or so badly kept, that at many seasons they are almost impassible. All merchandise passes through the country with freedom, going from one *comitatus* to another without any examination; and none but the goods of those who are not noble pay tolls, which in any case are but small. The regulation of the inns is bad. On the cross roads, where Jews usually undertake the entertainment of the traveller, there is care taken neither of man nor cattle; on the main roads, almost all the innkeepers and their servants are foreigners from Austria or Bayreuth; and these exorbitant landlords exercise in a most unmerciful manner the right which they have, but which is denied to the King, of taxing the noble and the peasant in an equally arbitrary manner; so that it is not wonderful if we see the common merchant, more particularly the Servian, prefer taking up his night's quarters in the open air. Travelling frequenters of the markets, to whom the roads often owe both their safety and their cheerfulness, are met in every part, and at every season; for there is nothing more remarkable in the internal trade of

Hungary than the number of merchants and tradesmen, retail dealers, hawkers, pedlars, and handicraftsmen, going from market to market, and frequenting the numerous fairs, which amount to above two thousand in the year. No moderate village is without a Greek or Jew merchant; and, particularly in the south of Hungary, all the internal, as well as the foreign trade, is in the hands of the Jews, Greeks, and Armenians, so that an Hungarian or a German can seldom hope to engage in profitable mercantile dealings, and the number of the Jewish traders is daily increasing in every branch, both of wholesale and retail trade. All the fairs, except a few great cattle-markets, some of which take place at the towns near the frontiers, and the great markets of Pesth, Debretzin, and Eszek, are almost exclusively confined to dealings in articles of internal produce or consumption. These were formerly held upon the Sabbath, till Maria Theresa transferred them to some week day. The want of large towns, their irregular distributions, —the difficulty of communication and intercourse by letters before the post was understood,—and ignorance of the method of doing business by commission,—may be the causes of the numerous applications for market privileges granted since the twelfth century by the kings of Hungary, which, as trade becomes really great and prosperous, must fall into disuse."

There is considerable difficulty in obtaining an exact view of the foreign trade of Hungary; but it appears, that, during the ten years, from 1777 to 1786, the export amounted to - - - - - - - 148,229,177 fl.

The import, - 106,721,371

So that in each year there was - - 41,507,806 in favour of Hungary.

The wars which afterwards broke out in Germany and Italy,

and which increased the demand for the produce of Hungary, and, of course, the activity of the farmers, increased the disproportion between the exports and imports, so that, the

Exports being -	29,122,915 fl.
the Imports, - -	20,163,132
the Balance was -	8,959,783

The following is an account of the chief articles of export and import between Hungary and the German States of Austria, including Galicia, in the year 1802 :—

EXPORTS.

Cattle of all kinds,	8,483,493 fl.
Produce of the fields, including Grain, 2,367,125 fl. Meal, 244,487 Peas, &c. 72,527 Other produce, as Truffels, &c. 132,197 fl.	2,816,338
Articles of food, as game, fish, fruit, cheese, -	413,255
Honey and wax, -	203,865
Drugs, &c. - - -	719,032
Tobacco, - -	1,143,189
Wine, - -	2,381,815
Spirits, &c. -	104,490
Products of mines, (such as are articles of commerce,)	637,491
Wooden work, -	96,687
Pottery, - -	16,060
Books, paper, &c. -	32,371
Retail articles, - including 5,753,224 pfunds of rags for 230,128 florins; 67,482 birch besoms for 674 florins; tobacco-pipes for 7495 florins; knapsacks for 312 florins, &c.	255,440
Articles of clothing, in which were two beaver hats,	100,179 fl.
Wool and woollen cloth,	5,039,557
Cotton articles, -	85,032
Hemp, flax, and linen,	171,909
Yarn, including 13,254 of Turkish coloured, -	63,874
Silk and silk ware, -	161,789
Skins and leather, including 3646 parcels of Turkish Morocco leather, -	1,245,243
Various natural products, including feathers for beds; 203,191 metzen of galls; human hair and that of horses; horns of oxen and hogs' bristles,	327,143
Various products of art, as saddlery for 7483 fl.; hair-sieves for 559 fl. copper-plates, (probably returned to Vienna,) for 2002 fl. - - -	16,718
The total, when the kreutzers are included,	24,515,078 fl. 24 kr.

Imports from the German States of Austria to Hungary.

Cattle,	682,171 fl.	Clothing, as hats, gloves, shoes,	224,899 fl.
Produce of the fields,	266,554	Woollen cloth,	4,668,068
Articles of food,	290,802	Cottons,	1,611,564
Honey and wax,	3,275	Linen,	2,692,265
Drugs,&c.including 827,420 pfunds of coffee,	2,790,280	Yarn,	230,583
Tobacco,	2,993	Silk articles,	1,223,901
Wine, 29,865 eimers, and other liquors,	219,989	Skins, leathers, and furs,	918,314
Produce of mines, particularly iron,	1,299,235	Various natural products, as flints, whetstones, whale-bone,	114,602
Wood work,	349,885	Various artificial products, as ribbons, lace, carriages, maps, &c.	248,367
Pottery ware,	170,683		
Stationary, including 97,873 pf. books,	117,241		
Retail articles, including quills, combs, playing-cards, sealing-wax, &c.	264,440	The total, when the kreutzers are included,	18,390,122 fl. 51 kr.

The prices of different articles, at the period I visited Pesth, were, according to the accounts afterwards published, as follows:

Wool.	
1 Centner of improved winter Wool,	from 175 to 225 fl.
Do. Do. summer Wool,	130 — 170
Do. Common Wool,	112 — 150
Coarse Hungarian Wool,	80 — 95
Wax and Honey.	
1 Centner Yellow Wax,	220 — 250
Do. White Honey,	90 — 100
Do. Yellow Honey,	60 — 75
Do. Brown Honey,	40 — 55
Do. Honey not purified,	34 — 40
Tobacco.	
Centner from Debrö,	30 — 40
Do. Szegedin,	17 — 30
Do. Fünfkirken,	18 — 22

Butter, Tallow, &c.	
1 Centner Butter,	from 80 to 100 fl.
Do. Hogs' Lard,	78 — 80
Do. Tallow,	60 — 70
Do. Grease,	75 — 80
Do. Purified Tallow,	65 — 70
Spirits.	
1 Eimer distilled from Plumbs,	35 — 90
Do. from Grain,	52 — 55
Wine.	
1 Eimer Old Ofen Wine,	30 — 40
Do. Last Year's Ofen Wine,	15 — 20
Do. Old White Ofen Wine,	32 — 45
Do. Last Year's White Ofen	18 — 22
Hides.	
1 Pair of Ox Hides,	36 — 40
Do. of Cow Hides,	25 — 28

1 Pair of Calf Skins,	from 5	to	6 fl.
Do. of Horses' Hides,	8 —		9
Do. of Sheep Skins, -	4 —		5

GRAIN.

1 Pressburg Metze of Wheat,			12 fl.
Do. of Rye,			8
Do. of Barley,			6
Do. of Oats,			$2\frac{6}{20}$
Do. of Millet,			$10\frac{13}{20}$
Do. of Maize,			$7\frac{6}{20}$

VARIOUS ARTICLES.

1 Centner of Potash,	from 55	to	65 fl.
Do. of Rapeseed Oil,	54 —		65
Do. of Linseed Oil,	70 —		75
Do. of Hemp from Apatin, -	28 —		30
Do. of prepared Horse-hair, -	110 —		120
Do. of unprepared Do.	80 —		90
1 Hundred Ox Horns,	12 —		26

These prices were esteemed very high, arising chiefly from the depreciating state of the paper currency. In order to afford some standard of comparison, I shall here insert a similar table of the prices at Pesth during the fair, which was held at the latter end of the year 1813, when, however, the currency was likewise in a precarious state. In the year 1814 and 1815, the pound sterling fluctuated from 20 to 30 florins, according to the rate of exchange.

WOOL.

1 Centner of fine Wool, only once shorn, from	90	to	115 fl.
Do. Extra fine improved summer Wool,	70 —		80
Do. Winter Wool of middle quality,	55 —		65
Do. Ordinary winter Wool,	45 —		50
Do. Fine Zigara Wool,	48 —		55
Do. Common Hungarian Wool, -	36 —		45

WAX AND HONEY.

Do. Yellow Wax from Banat,	90 —		95
Do. Do. from Rosenau, -	90 —		95
Do. White Honey from Banat,	85 —		95
1 Centner Yellow Honey from Banat,	from 70	to	75 fl.
Do. Brown Do. Do.	60 —		65
Do. Unpurified Honey from Banat,	60 —		62

TOBACCO.

Do. of the last year's leaf Tobacco from Debrö, -	25 —		30
Do. of the same year,	20 —		25
Do. of the same year from Szegedin,	20 —		25
Do. of the last year from Debretzin,	14 —		15
Do. Do. from Fünfkirken, -	20 —		25

BUTTER, TALLOW, &c.

Do. Butter boiled down,	68 —		75
Do. Hogs' Lard,	40 —		45

1 Centner Tallow,	from 40	to	45 fl.
Do. Purified Tallow,	48 —		50
Spirits.			
1 Eimer distilled from Plumbs,	25 —		30
Do. from Grain,	22 —		25
Wine.			
1 Eimer of old Red Ofen Wine,	14 —		20
Do. of the same year,	8 —		12
Do. Common Wine of the country,	6 —		8
Hides.			
1 Pair of Ox Hides,	30 —		32
1 Pair of Cow Hides,	from 20	to	24 fl.
Do. of Calf Skins,	4 —		6
Do. of Horses' Hides,	10 —		12
Do. Sheep Skins,	2 —		2½
Various Products.			
1 Hundred Ox Horns,	4 —		6
1 Centner of Rape Oil,	36 —		40
Do. of Linseed Oil,	40 —		45
Transylvanian Candles,	55 —		65
Prepared Horse-hair,	50 —		60
Hemp from Apatin,	18 —		20

In addition to the above articles, I find mentioned in a table of prices for the October fair of 1814:

1 Pfund of Cantharides,	5 —	6 fl.	1 Metze of Galls, (Knoppern,) 18 — 20 fl.

The public institution, which of late years has excited the greatest share of interest at Pesth, is the Hungarian National Museum; which, at the same time that it speaks highly in favour of the patriotic feelings of the people, promises to be of much general utility.

The ground-work of this institution was laid by the Graf Széchényi, when he presented to the state in the year 1802 his valuable library of Hungarian books and manuscripts, together with a collection of coins unique for its extent and value, as connected with Hungary and Transylvania.

In 1804, this splendid present was brought to Pesth, and placed in the library belonging to the Pauliner Monks. It was here enriched by many valuable additions, both from the liberal gifts of the nobility, and by means of the royal ordinance, which had decreed that a copy of every book published in the dominions should be presented to this library. The collections both of coins and of books having greatly increased, it was found necessary to remove them in 1806 to the Seminarial

building; and the project was now advanced of enlarging the plan, by connecting with the library and collection of coins, a complete national museum, to embrace every object of natural history and the arts connected with Hungary. The Fürst Grassalkovics gave a piece of land, on which it was proposed to raise an appropriate building; and 500,000 guldens were subscribed by different nobles and free cities. This money, however, which was in the paper currency of the country, being afterwards found insufficient for the object of building, a palace of the Fürst Batthyany was purchased, which, having undergone repairs and additions, received in 1814 the cabinet of natural history. This was the state of things when I visited Pesth; the library, and the coins, and other parts of the museum, still occupied the wing of the public seminary; but the minerals and the other objects of natural history were in the building destined hereafter to contain the whole.

The library is, as yet, the part most worthy of attention; it contains 2121 manuscripts, chronologically arranged; 7306 volumes entirely confined to the elucidation of the history and literature of Hungary, whether written in the Hungarian or in foreign languages; 271 works of prints and maps; and 2222 volumes, which, though not strictly appertaining to Hungary, will be found necessary or useful by those who are devoting their attention to the history and improvement of their country; but great additions are daily making in every department.

In the library the following arrangement is adopted: The manuscripts are divided into, 1. The autographs of the authors; 2. Public transactions: 3. Collections of records; 4. Historical, topographical, and other similar works which have never appeared in print; 5. Political, statistical, and juridical treatises; and, 6. Miscellaneous works.

The printed works are separated into, 1. Rare editions;

2. Works on literary history and education; 3. Statistical and political; 4. On the constitution of Hungary; 5. On the reigning family; 6. Hungarian historians; 7. Historians of the connected provinces; 8. Writers on the connected Hungarian and Turkish history; 9. The church history, as it respects all the different religions in Hungary; 10. Works of Hungarian divines; 11. Medical and agricultural Hungarian authors; 12. Hungarian mathematical and philosophical works; 13. Philology and grammar; 14. Illyrian authors; 15. Hungarian, German, and Latin journals; 16. 17. 18. Miscellaneous works in the Hungarian language.

The engraved works consist, 1. Of books of arms, seals, and coins; 2. Collections of Hungarian portraits; 3. Views and landscapes in Hungary; 4. Maps; 5. Miscellaneous prints.

The works which are not strictly Hungarian consist of dictionaries, diplomatic writings, and works on coins and antiquities, historical treatises on Poland and Germany, and works of the Italian and Byzantine historians.

The access to this library is perfectly free; both the books and manuscripts are open to any person who wishes to read at the library, from nine to twelve in the morning, and from three to six in the afternoon, and it is permitted to make any extracts for private use.

"The copying of manuscripts, however," says Dr Rumi, "with the view of publishing them, is accompanied with some difficulty, as I know from my own experience. Whosoever wishes to copy a manuscript, and send it forth to the public in print, must present a petition to his Imperial Highness the Archduke Palatine, praying for his permission. The Palatine demands the opinion of the directors of the museum, respecting the request of the petitioner; and, according to that opinion, permission is either granted or refused. This caution is

adopted, in order that such manuscripts may not get into print as the censors of the press could not allow, and in order that the managers of the museum may not be involved in unpleasant suspicions and responsibility. The officers of the museum are forbidden to undertake the copying of manuscripts for private individuals, either in person or by commission. By these regulations, indeed, the zeal and literary activity of the learned is confined; but it must be remembered that the Hungarian library is a national institution, which the court, under the responsibility of the Palatine, has undertaken to conduct, and that these orders are adopted to prevent the possibility of abuse."

Full and very excellent catalogues of this library have been published at Pesth, and of the manuscripts at Ædenburg, as likewise of the coins presented at the same time by Graf Széchényi, and which form the next most interesting part of the museum. The whole collection of ancient coins consists of 140 Grecian, 3 Jewish, 67 of barbarous nations, 4676 Roman, 130 Byzantine, besides the duplicates, all of which were found in the Hungarian dominions; and amongst them the gold coins of Pharnaces, and the silver coins of Crispus, were particularly pointed out. Of the Hungarian coins there are 2772. They are all arranged in eighteen handsome cases, made from different species of Hungarian wood, covered with glasses, and so contrived that the coins may be turned to exhibit both sides without the necessity of being touched.

The monuments of antiquity which have been discovered at different times in Hungary, and which are still frequently presenting themselves, form another increasing part of this collection. They consist of inscriptions and urns taken from tombs, a number of small bronze figures, and many cups and vessels, which are connected with historical facts and political

recollections; besides weapons and arms which commemorate the deeds of the Huns, the Romans, and the Turks, as they have successively invaded the plains of Hungary.

The department of natural history is but imperfectly supplied with materials. It may as yet be considered in its infancy; but it is intended to embrace a complete mineralogical arrangement, besides another series of Hungarian minerals, preserved in topographical order, illustrating the mineralogy of each *comitatus* separately. A complete Hungarian herbarium, and a collection of indigenous woods, are also in progress; and a few specimens, as the commencement of a cabinet of preserved quadrupeds, birds, fish, and insects, have lately been added. Of these, the minerals alone claim particular notice, which even now present many valuable specimens, and, I have no doubt, will become very interesting, judging both from the treasures of the country, and the exertions of the present curator, Mr Jonas, an ardent pupil of the schools of Schemnitz, to whose kindness I was much indebted while at Pesth.

An object which excited considerable curiosity was a large block of malleable iron, which had been found by a shepherd, in October 1814, in the forest of Lenartúvka, a few miles from Bartfeld, on the slope of the Carpathian chain, and of which one-half had just arrived as a present to the museum of Pesth, accompanied with a letter from Professor Mathias Sennowitz of Eperies. From this letter, which was afterwards published in a journal at Vienna, it appeared that the whole mass, when discovered, weighed nearly two centners; that it had been found lying on the surface of the ground, covered only by dead leaves and grass, and had, with great difficulty and labour, been since divided by means of saws formed from watch springs. "Certain as it is," says the professor, "that this metal is pure iron, yet the opinions respecting its origin

are various. Some very good judges conceive it to be a mass of ordinary manufactured iron ; whilst, however, neither written evidence nor tradition afford the slightest trace of iron furnaces or forges having been established upon these heights, the supposition is scarcely admissible, and, unsupported, falls to the ground. Others believe that this metal is a melted bell, and that, some centuries ago, a convent must have stood in this place, which was destroyed and burnt during the frequent invasions of the Turks and Tartars. A few cautious critics go farther, and they advise me not to submit this discovery too rashly to the scientific public. For instance, one of my correspondents says, ' I have seen your wonderful iron—its external characters may deceive you—and, in that case, what would be the consequence ? You appear not to be aware, that, in the neighbourhood of Twaroszeza and Muszinka, there are secret paths by which the Jews convey various smuggled articles. This is a piece of the best and purest iron from the forges of Gömmör, which the Jews have either hidden or lost in this place.'

" That this mass, as some have ignorantly said, cannot be native iron, because it is connected with no matrix, is obviously a groundless objection, as the matrix, even if we suppose it to have existed, might have been separated as it rolled from its original situation in the mountain ; and my own opinion is, that this heavy mass was, by the floods of the 24th and 26th of August 1813, rolled from a higher place in the mountain than that in which it was found. I trace much similarity between it and the celebrated mass discovered by Pallas in Siberia." Of this curious specimen, no analysis had been made. Its form was very irregular ; there was, however, a general appearance of concavity on one side, and convexity on the other. The surface was uneven, and in many of the parts,

particularly where it was a little indented, there was a confused trace of reticular crystallization. Its recent fracture was coarse-grained, and presented a splendent metallic lustre. Where it was divided by the saw, it was solid and compact; it was perfectly malleable, very tough, heavy, and, when struck, sonorous. It was attracted by the magnet, and the solution in nitric acid was of a clear emerald green.

I cannot suffer this opportunity to pass without referring to the interesting experiments of Dr Clarke, recorded in the third number of the Journal of Sciences and the Arts, which appears to add greatly to the probability, of all these large insulated masses of iron, which have been at different times discovered, having really descended from the atmosphere. The words in which Dr Clarke has related the curious results of his experiments with Newman's blow-pipe are as follow:—

"One of the most remarkable results which I have obtained by means of this blow-pipe is that of IRON from METEORIC STONES, all of which are reducible without any diminution or increase of weight to *iron*, admitting the action of the file, and disclosing a bright *metallic* surface, and being highly *magnetic*. This iron resembles that which whitesmiths call *iron blubber* in *clinker*, and it has the same specific gravity, not exceeding 2·666, the metal being nearly in the state of slag. Hence it follows, that, for the fall of iron from the atmosphere, nothing more is requisite than that the *stony concretions* which form in the atmosphere should undergo a greater degree of heat than that which has attended their deposition when they descend in the form of stones. I exposed this day *eight grains* of one of the meteoric stones that fell at L'Aigle in Normandy to the action of the ignited gas; it became speedily fused, and exhibited a black *slag;* by continuance of the heat, this slag began to boil, and was reduced to a bead of

iron, weighing exactly *eight grains.*"—The circumstance which renders this result the more extraordinary is, that this specimen of the meteoric production yielded, according to the analysis of Fourcroy and Vauquelin, only 36 *per cent.*, or, according to Thenard, 45 *per cent.* of oxyde of iron.

From these experiments, we are almost authorized in adopting the repeated evidence which has been given in proof of the descent of meteoric stones, as evidence likewise in favour of the less completely attested fact of the fall of meteoric iron; if, indeed, the peculiarities of the analysis, and of other connected circumstances, may not be considered as rendering any additional proof unnecessary.

I observed amongst the minerals some specimens of Hungarian *sulphur*, and many of the *coal* and *rock salt* of this country, objects which naturally attracted my attention. The first of these substances has been procured in several parts of the kingdom, generally from copper pyrites. One of the most extensive manufactures of it was formerly at Bernstein, in Eisenburg Comitatus, near the Styrian frontiers, where Graf Batthyany, about the year 1770, and for several following years, obtained 200 centners of sulphur monthly. This work was afterwards neglected, but, the year before I was in the country, again began to excite the attention of the proprietor. At Radoboi, in Croatia, a sulphur mine is worked, which is said, I know not with what correctness, to be capable of yielding sufficient for the supply of Austria. It is in a clay bed, occurring in nodules and veins, almost in the form of pure sulphur. It is refined on the spot, and a considerable quantity is sold. Some impressions of plants are found in the clay, of which specimens are in the national museum.

The specimens of coal were, for the most part, of an inferior quality; they were either varieties of the wood-coal, or of the

brown-coal, though one was of a peculiar species, approaching to the glance-coal, and formed into globular distinct concretions. Traces of this mineral are scattered through the whole country; but the veins which have hitherto been discovered, are generally of no great value. At Marksdorf, in the Zips, there is a stratum to be traced on the surface of the mountain for many hundred fathoms, described as occurring in beds of sandstone and clay, and inclining from the north-east to the south-west. It has never been worked except by the peasants, who have excavated small pits, and the coal has been used in the iron-forges. The bed is not above four inches in thickness, but the coal burns well.

A company at Peterwardein attempted to dig coals in that neighbourhood. They were sold at 36 kreutzers the Pressburg metze, at the mouth of the pit, and coal-yards were established at Peterwardein and Neusatz. To this, however, little encouragement was given. There are likewise traces of coal in the Saroscher, the Gömörer, and the Borsoder Comitatus, and particularly at Pongyelok, in the Neograder Comitatus. Seams of coal crop out in the southern part of the Balaton lake; and I saw a thin bed running across the Muir near to the Styrian frontiers.

The most important coal-work in Hungary is in the neighbourhood of Ædenburg. It was first accidentally discovered about the year 1670, but was neglected, or partially worked, till, in 1793, the Imperial Company of Coal-pits and Canals, of which the Emperor is himself a member, made a contract with the city for a perpetual lease of the coal-works. From that time it was put under regular management, and has yielded annually, within these few years, nearly 140,000 centners of useful coal.

Peat has, in a few cases, been introduced as fuel. Joseph

the Second wished to encourage its use, and latterly the Palatine has appointed persons to examine into the subject, and see how far it might be looked to as a substitute for wood. It occurs in many parts of Hungary, and has been partially used at Kanyapta, Fakla, Hortobagy, and at Lomnicz, Käsmack, and Poprad in the Zips, but the whole quantity consumed is very small. There is reason to believe, that there are great stores of this substance in the country, on the opposite side of the Theiss. At Mezó Berény, the peasants use it for burning bricks and distilling spirits; but, in all probability, the prejudices of the country will prevent the value, either of the peat or the coal, from being appreciated, till a real difficulty has been experienced from a deficiency in the supply of wood.

Salt is another product which Hungary yields in the greatest profusion. The two chief sources from which it is obtained are the numerous mines in the Marmaros Comitatus, where it occurs in the form of rock salt, of which the chief mine is at Rhonaszek, and the salt springs of Sóvár, near Eperies. From the springs of Sóvár 120,000 centners are obtained annually, and the whole quantity procured and consumed in Hungary amounts to 1,299,839 centners. The annual revenue produced by the sale of this is above 18,000,000 guldens, which belong entirely to the crown. The only difficulty is to find a ready market; the distant situation of the mines rendering it impossible to employ them to the best advantage. Bredetzky, in his topographical sketches of the kingdom of Hungary, has given us many historical facts respecting the salt mine of Sóvár, together with a description of its present state. It appears to have been known from the most remote periods. In the sixteenth century it was extensively worked for its rock salt, but towards the close of the seventeenth century, the water came in upon the works, and then salt was procured, not only from the solid mass, but from the brine; at length, how-

ever, in the winter of 1752, the whole mine was filled with water, and he adds, " The most remarkable circumstance is, that the water, at the time of its breaking in, was a completely saturated brine, and that it remains the same, both in quality and quantity, even to the present time."

The shaft, in which the working is carried on, is eighty-one fathoms deep, fifty fathoms being filled with brine, which is drawn up by means of two buckets formed of ox hides, alternately ascending and descending. In the year 1800, a new building was erected for conducting the process of evaporation, provided with a pan about 60 feet long, by 30 wide, formed of plates of wrought iron joined by screws. The brine being drawn from the pit, remains a few days in cisterns to suffer any adventitious matter to subside to the bottom. It is then conveyed into two preparatory pans, of 30 feet square, placed by the side of the large vessel, into which it is finally suffered to pass, when it has attained a given temperature. It is here evaporated, and the salt which is procured is strewed about two inches thick upon the drying floor. The whole of this process is effected by one fire with flues of heated air, and the vapour is carried off without being suffered to spread itself in the apartments of the manufactory. Previously to the establishment of this new building, the whole was conducted in a very inferior way; and above 3500 cubic klafters of wood were consumed annually to obtain somewhat above 100,000 centners of salt; the quantity of salt is now rather increased, with a saving of 2000 klafters of wood.

Rhonaseck, the other principal source of salt in Hungary, is a small village in the Marmaros Comitatus, placed in a valley, sheltered on the one side by a mountain covered with pines, on the other, bounded by barren hills. The inhabitants, who are a mingled race of Hungarians, Rusniacs, and Walachians,

are entirely occupied in the salt mines, nor are strangers suffered to settle amongst them without the express permission of the officers connected with the works. It would appear from the accounts of native writers, that these mines are worked in a much less skilful manner than those of Wieliczka. Each mine has usually two perpendicular shafts, one provided with ladders for the descent of the workmen, the other employed for drawing up the salt, and these open into the great chamber of the salt work, which is not supported by pillars of the natural earth or salt, but, being irregularly excavated, is subject to fall in, which has obliged them to relinquish many of the old workings. The salt is generally raised in masses, weighing about 50 pounds each, which are loaded in buckets of buffaloes hides, and brought to the surface by means of a windlass, worked by two horses. The depth to which these mines extend is from 60 to 100 fathoms. The superincumbent strata seem to be chiefly clay, containing a considerable quantity of selenite. It does not appear that above 500,000 centners of salt are annually obtained from Rhonaseck; the rest of the consumption of Hungary being supplied from Transylvania, whence 700,000 centners are imported every year by the government.

With respect to the salt of Transylvania, it is procured from six different places, in the extensive bed of that substance which seems to intersect nearly the whole country, from Walachia to the Marmaros Comitatus of Hungary; throughout which tract, salt-breaks occur so frequently, that ninety watchmen are placed at different stations, to prevent the inhabitants from purloining it. When a salt-spring exists in any hamlet, each individual is permitted to take weekly as much water as will be necessary for his private consumption,—and is besides allowed water for his cattle, but is altogether forbidden

to obtain salt from the brine for sale, this being an exclusive privilege of the crown.

The six principal salt-works are at Thorda, Kolosch, Deeschakna, Saltzburg, Paraid, and Maros-Ujvar. The workmen, except at Maros-Ujvar, are, for the greater part, the ordinary peasants of the country, who occupy themselves in this way when the fields require less of their care. The work is represented as very laborious; the instrument they employ is a kind of pointed hammer, with which they cut out the salt in blocks of about half a foot thick, and a foot square, weighing from 80 to 90 pfunds, for each of which they are paid $2\frac{1}{2}$ kreutzers, and as they can cut four of these blocks in the day, and are paid at a low rate for the smaller pieces which are broken off in the process, they gain about 12 kreutzers, equal, on the most favourable calculation, to sixpence daily.

Most of these salt-works, except that of Maros-Ujvar, are formed on the same plan; a shaft is sunk through the earth, and cased with timber, till they arrive at the mass of salt; it is then gradually enlarged in the form of a cone, and seldom carried to a greater depth than 80 fathoms, with an extent of flooring about 50 fathoms in diameter, before, the roof becoming insecure, they are forced to abandon the working.

The mine of Maros-Ujvar is on a larger scale, and better conducted. In the year 1792, two shafts were sunk at a distance of 50 fathoms, and at the depth of 30 fathoms were united by a gallery. The walls of this gallery were worked at an angle of 45°, so that at their junction on the roof, they formed a right angle. The salt was then excavated, following always the direction of the walls, until the width of the pit was 30 fathoms, its height being 15, after which it was intended to carry the walls perpendicularly downwards. Two similar chambers are likewise constructed, but of smaller dimensions,

at each end of the main excavation, making the whole length about 130 fathoms; and the superficial extent of the floor, where the walls become perpendicular, is such, that every foot of depth will yield 112,000 centners of pure salt;—the yearly produce of this single mine is above 200,000 centners. The salt is brought to the surface in nets or sacks of buffalo hides, each holding about eight centners, by means of a windlass worked by eight horses, and the workmen descend in a small shaft provided with steps. The water which collects in the workings is not in any large quantity, and is drained into pits sunk for the purpose, and occasionally emptied. The salt is pure, but marked with dark lines; it is shipped at once upon the river Maros, which is a great saving in the expence of carriage; whereas, from the other works of Transylvania, they are forced to transport the salt over land to Nagy-banya, Elesd, Sombyo, or Marosporto, whence it passes in government vessels through Szegedin and Arad to the different places of its destination. There have latterly been some other pits commenced on the same plan as that of Maros-Ujvar, but not so extensive.

Soda, of which Hungary is capable of yielding a large quantity, is a product so singular in its nature, that I shall venture a little out of the regular track, to give a short account of the manner in which it is procured.

In the midst of the sandy country which surrounds the road from Debretzin to Grosswardein, and at nearly an equal distance from each of these towns, are seen several small lakes, from one foot to three in depth, which, during the summer, become dry, and leave the soda in the form of an incrustation on the sand. These lakes are within three or four miles of each other, separated by the road and by a morass, in which the pools of water are filled with grass and alkaline plants. The

bed of the lake consists of a fine grey sand, mixed with mica, effervescing strongly with acids, and containing some iron and pebbles of clay iron ore. This sand extends to the depth of three or four feet, and beneath it is a bed of blue clay. In dry weather the water evaporates completely, except in such places as have been dug to a considerable depth. The rain, however, soon fills the hollows again; but four or five hot days are sufficient again to dry them, particularly when a strong wind blows, —a circumstance very frequent in this place, and which assists more in the evaporation than the strongest heat. The water becomes quite warm in the summer, and the surrounding atmosphere is impregnated with alkaline vapour. As early in the season as the evaporation has taken place, whether from the lakes or the moist earth, small fissures form themselves on the sandy surface, and, in a few days, the whole becomes so dry, that it may be safely crossed, and is so embued with the salt, that in many places the soda lies in crusts of the third of an inch in thickness upon the ground; and, in a few days more, the whole surface is covered, to the depth of one or more inches, with a light saline substance resembling ashes. This is scraped into large heaps by means of rabbles; and, in three or four days, the evaporation continuing, more salt is formed, which is likewise gathered into heaps; and this process continues from April till the end of October. In the autumn months the produce is the greatest, because, as the water of the larger lakes evaporates, what remains becomes more loaded with salt, and consequently deposits more. The water also which remains unevaporated in the deepest places is collected and preserved before the winter rains come on. A single man can collect, in a good season, 30 or 40 Pressburg metzen of the salt in a day; but of the whole quantity produced I am uncertain. The inhabitants of Debretzin manufacture from it yearly 7000 cent-

ners of soap; and an individual of that town undertook annually to procure 10,000 centners of pure soda, which, however, he could not accomplish. Although the soda from the lakes which I have mentioned is more used than any other procured in Hungary, various other districts yield it in considerable quantities. Some years ago, Baron Orczy established a manufactory of it on the banks of the Palitscher lake, near Theresianopolis, which was afterwards relinquished. The peasants about Gross Károly collected, in one year, 40,000 centners of the impure salt from a morass which became dry; and, in the *comitatus* of Pesth, and that of Batsch, and part of the Banat, and the Szathmarer *comitatus*, the road sometimes passes, for the distance of a whole day's journey, over a plain thickly strewed with soda. This appearance never occurred to me but once, which was in the neighbourhood of Urmeny, on an open flat country, where the shallow waters of some marshy land had just become dry. The whole surface of the turf was strewed with the white saline powder. In such places the *Salsola Kali*, *Soda*, and *Rosacea* are found growing abundantly.

Saltpetre is procured in considerable quantities from the soil on which the flocks and herds have been long feeding in several parts of Hungary, particularly around the Neusiedler-see and Stuhlweissenburg; and large manufactories of it are found at Nagy Kallo and Debretzin. In 1802, 7060 centners were exported by the government, to whom it belongs, into Austria. It is obtained by a simple process of lixiviation.

On the subject of *Alum*, another important product of the Hungarian soil, I have nothing so valuable to offer as the information which Schwartner has collected. That author informs us, that this treasure was first brought into notice by the manufactory established about forty years ago at Parád, at

the foot of Matra, which was followed, about twenty years ago, by a second, founded by Baron Orczy; of these the former yields about 500 centners, the latter from 700 to 800 centners. He says, likewise, that the alum slate about Munkatsch is excellent, besides the advantage of a well-wooded country; and the alum work there lately established flourishes considerably. Still better, he observes, must be that alum slate, as yet quite unused in the neighbourhood of Tokay; and the work which has lately been established at Vissegrad will prove very profitable, having not only wood at command, but a ready access to the navigation of the Danube. In 1802 the quantity obtained did not supply the consumption, for 1752 centners of foreign alum were imported into Hungary, and not above 42,763 pfunds exported. I must not, however, altogether forget the institution which has led to this long, but I hope not unwelcome, digression.

The officers to whose care the museum is committed, are the director, Jacob von Müller; the keeper of the coins and antiquities, Anton von Haliczky; the keeper of the minerals, Joseph von Jonas; and keeper of the cabinet of natural history, Doctor Jekel. The museum is open to the public on stated days, and strangers are admitted at other times. It was intended to publish a volume every year, to be entitled *Acta Musæi Nationalis Hungarici*, to contain an account of the progress of the institution, together with dissertations on the manuscripts and various objects contained in it. This had not hitherto been carried into effect, but the commencement was promised in 1816. As early as 1809 a folio volume was published at Pesth, explaining the objects of the institution, under the title of *Museum Hungaricum excelsis Regni Proceribus et inclytis statibus et ordinaribus exhibitum.*

The munificence of the Graf Széchényi, as founder of this

museum, has been greatly praised by all the writers and literary men of the country; and this theme, which has furnished matter for innumerable addresses and dedications, has called forth the exertions of three of the most celebrated of their Latin poets; Szerdahelyi, Rêvai, and Hannulik, have each of them written odes of considerable merit to immortalize the name of this patron of letters. A wish to improve the country in every way, and a disposition to value and respect such attempts, appear amongst the ruling passions of the natives of Hungary and Transylvania. There is an enthusiasm and fervour of patriotism which glows in all their writings even to excess; and, to judge of the inclination to afford active support to such undertakings where the power exists, we need only remember the alacrity with which the museum, the theatre, the schools, and the institutions for education of which we have already heard, and shall hereafter hear more, are supported by the nobles. At the very period when Graf Széchényi was presenting his valuable collection to his countrymen at Pesth, Baron Brukenthal was bequeathing his extensive library and museum, containing minerals, coins, and paintings, largely endowed, with the same view, at Hermanstadt.

Besides the library of the national museum, which forms so important a part of that establishment, there are several private collections of books in Pesth and Ofen, and some circulating libraries. But the most extensive and general collection is the public library of the university, which is arranged in a fine room, destitute, indeed, of other ornaments, but of noble dimensions. It consists of 50,000 volumes of approved works, and is conducted on a more liberal footing than such institutions are in England, being literally open to every one. There is a reading room, furnished with desks, ink-stands, and seats of materials so substantial that they cannot easily be injured, and

here the books are delivered precisely on the plan which I have described at Vienna, which is the usual regulation throughout Germany. The libraries are, however, generally royal foundations, and not, as in England, formed by public subscription.

The University, of whose history I may hereafter speak at large, has been of considerable advantage to Pesth, both by increasing the concourse of people, and by diffusing more generally a literary taste and spirit amongst the inhabitants. It is chiefly frequented by Hungarians and Transylvanians, and a large portion of the young men who, in former times, would have been forced to seek their education in the schools of Germany or Italy, now receive the greater part of their instruction in their native country. The studies of this university are divided into the four faculties of philosophy, medicine, law, and theology. The subjects included under the first of these faculties are mechanics, mathematics, belles lettres, the military science, agriculture, astronomy, heraldry, diplomacy, and the study of coins. The course of law includes the history of the European states, and of the memorable treaties and negociations; political economy; the history and jurisprudence of Hungary; the law of nations, and more particularly the law of Hungary and the Germanic empire; and, finally, the literature connected with law in general. The theological studies embrace, under various heads, the critical investigation of the Scriptures; the acquirement of the Hebrew language; and an acquaintance with ecclesiastical history and law; and theology, both doctrinal and moral.

But to give an idea of the mode in which the studies in the different faculties are divided and allotted to their particular years, I will state the course pursued by the students of medi-

cine during the five years which are exacted from them previously to their obtaining a diploma.

First year.—Anatomy, chemistry, botany, natural history, general pathology, and surgery.

Second.—Physiology, more minute anatomy, the theory of operations, surgical instruments, and midwifery.

Third.—Pathology, materia medica, and diseases of the eye.

Fourth.—Therapia of acute and chronic diseases, with clinical lectures both in medicine and surgery; and, lastly, the veterinary art, which, however, may be postponed till the fifth year, or till the course is completed, but must be pursued before a diploma can be granted.

Fifth year, the particular therapia and the clinical studies are continued, to which are added, medical jurisprudence and medical police.

The lectures are nearly all delivered in Latin. Surgeons who wish to practise in the country or small towns, have a more general course of studies, comprised in two years, and delivered in the language of the country. Apothecaries must however understand Latin, and are obliged to attend lectures on botany, chemistry, and natural history, in that language. The examinations appointed previously to taking a degree, or obtaining any certificate of merit, are strict, and include a clinical trial of the candidate's proficiency.

Professor Kitaibel accompanied me one day to the Clinical Hospital, which forms an appendage to the University. It is small, but excellently calculated both for the benefit of the patients, and for the instruction of the pupils. It consists of several small wards, each containing six beds only. The patients are placed in each ward according to the nature of their cases. In one ward are found men afflicted with diseases requiring medical treatment; in another, women, with similar com-

plaints; in another, surgical cases; and in a fourth, diseases of the eye; another is set apart for lying-in women; and one ward is filled with patients labouring under syphilis. One ward is appropriated to medical cases, for the instruction of young surgeons, who are known to be often so situated, particularly in Hungary, that they must undertake the medical as well as surgical treatment of the patients. The students who are in the fourth and fifth years of their studies, attend the patients under the eye of the professor, who does much to encourage and inspire them with ardour in the pursuit. Each gives his reports of the cases under his care in Latin; and on one devolves the duty of making a summary report of every thing which has occurred in the course of each month. One of the elder pupils, who has the situation of assistant, and lives in the house, gives a half-yearly report of the occurrences during that period.

It is likewise the duty of one of the pupils to keep a thermometrical and barometrical register, which is checked by the observations regularly made by the Professor of Astronomy. I was much pleased with the order and regularity with which this hospital is conducted; and am not sure, that more celebrated institutions might not gather hints from the proceedings of this distant and almostunknown medical school. It must, however, be owned, that the whole is more manageable from its small extent, as there were not above eleven students in their fourth and fifth years, nor above thirty in the earlier years of their medical studies.

The whole number of students attending the University generally amounts to between six and seven hundred. In 1808, there were 617, and in 1810, only 566, of whom 59 were pursuing Theology, 136 the Law, 60 Medicine, 59 Surgery, 11 Pharmacy, 232 Philosophy, and 9 Geometry; of the 59 sur-

geons, 19 received their instructions in the Hungarian, and 40 in the German language; and to convey some idea of the liberality which exists in this establishment, disdaining to embarrass the progress of science by connecting with it the dogmas of religion, and exacting, as the price of its comparatively trifling attainments, the sacrifice of truth, and the outward confession of some creed to which the heart does not consent, it will be enough to state, that, amongst the students in this Catholic country, many professed the evangelical Lutheran doctrines, many were of the Reformed church, many of the Greek church who had refused to conform, and ten were Jews. It is a lesson which leaves no room for comment; and for the sake of this and the many other excellencies of the institution, we are inclined to forgive some slight imperfections; nor should we suffer a smile to arise, when we are told, that in the education of this small fraternity of Jews, of Greeks, of Protestants, and of Catholics, no fewer than 92 Professors and assistants find their daily occupation.

Connected with the University of Pesth is a botanic garden, to which Professor Kitaibel, who now fills the chair of that science, conducted me. It had only been established in its present situation three years, and, of course, was still in its infancy. It is a wide open space, and the plants are arranged according to the Linnæan system. In the large conservatory for foreign and tender plants, I observed the Laurel, the Laurustinus, and the sweet Bay, treated quite as greenhouse shrubs,—a circumstance which I also noticed in the garden of the King of Saxony at Pilnitz, where these trees are kept with the same precautions as the orange. It is obviously the severity of the winter, probably depending on the distance of the sea, which renders this necessary; for while at Paris the mean temperature of the coldest month is not below $+2^{\circ}$ of the Cen-

tigrade thermometer, that of the coldest month at Ofen is — 2° 4′. The Hungarian summer, on the contrary, is excessively hot; and, while the mean temperature of that season at Paris, situated 1° 30′ farther north, is 19, that of Ofen is 21° 3′. In 1811, the mean summer temperature of Ofen was 24°, which is that commonly noticed at Rome in latitude 41° 53′. It has also been observed, with respect to the temperature, that the variation between the night and day is much less at Ofen than either in Switzerland or in Paris.

Professor Kitaibel, under whose guidance I visited the garden, and to whose kindness I was several times indebted while at Pesth, is well known by his writings in the scientific world; and one of them seems peculiarly to claim our attention in this place.

In conjunction with the Graf Franz Waldstein, he published, in 1799, the first decade of a work, entitled, "*Plantæ rariores Hungariæ indigenæ, descriptionibus et iconibus illustratæ,*" which was continued in successive numbers, so that the fifteenth number, which completed the first half of the second volume, appeared in 1804; and, as the object of these authors was not to present a complete view of the botanical riches of Hungary, but rather to make known such plants as had hitherto escaped observation in that country, or had been but imperfectly described, it may not be unacceptable if I should simply enumerate the chief of those which are described and depicted in this valuable work, beginning with those which were previously quite undescribed, or not known as growing in Hungary. They are, in the first two volumes, as follows:—

Lactuca sagittata	Alyssum murale	Scabiosa banatica
Achillea lingulata	Symphytum cordatum	——— corniculata
Lepidium crassifolium	Vinca herbacea	Phyteuma canescens
Scabiosa longifolia	Ranunculus crenatus	Allium atropurpureum

Saxifraga hieracifolia
Crepis rigida
Peucedanum arenarium
Glycyrrhiza glandulifera
Cerastium anomalum
Senecio vernalis
Trifolium macrorrhizum
——— angulatum
Aster canus
Kitaibelia vitifolia
Beta trigyna
Trifolium pallidum
Dianthus collinus
Plantago tenuiflora
Gypsophila arenaria
Trifolium dentatum
Ranunculus polyphyllus
Astragalus eriocephalus
Alcea pallida
Lactuca stricta
Plantago arenaria
Carduus nitidus
Scabiosa canescens
Euphorbia lucida
Iris arenaria
Cratægus niger
Camphorosma ovata
Campanula lingulata
Achillea crithmifolia
Polygonum arenarium
Allium setaceum
Crepis hieracioides
Thymus montanus
Artemisia monogyna
Salsola arenaria
Waldsteinia geordes
Achillea setacea
Delphinium fissum
Carduus candicans
Genista ovata
Hieracium echioides
Melampirum barbatum
Arenaria pendula
Seseli leucospermum
Alyssum tortuosum
——— edentulum
Euphorbia villosa
Anthericum sulphureum
Cerastium sylvaticum
Erysimum angustifolium
Myosotis obtusa
Helleborus purpurescens
Veronica foliosa
Atriplex acuminata
Sedum spathulatum
Linum nervosum
Salsola cinerea
Ranunculus pedatus
Aster punctatus
Apargia aspera
Hedysarum album
Tragopogon floccosum
Leontodon serotinum
Centaurea atropurpurea
Seseli gracile
Orobus ochroleucus
Glechoma hederacea
Geranium umbrosum
Orobus alpestris
Hieracium lanatum
Senecio rupestris
Cardamine carnosa
Cytisus leucanthus
Stachis obliqua
Vicia sordida
Euphorbia ambigua
Campanula flexuosa
Scabiosa stricta
Dentaria trifolia
Rubus hirtus
Senecio croaticus
Arabis procurrens
Hieracium foliosum
Seseli rigidum
Thymus acicularis
Cynoglossum umbellatum
Asperula longiflora.

Amongst the plants which were before known as indigenous in Hungary, but are either very rare or imperfectly described, this work contains the following:

Silene longiflora
Carduus radiatus
Brassica elongata
Silene dichotoma
Achillea ochroleuca
Crepis hispida
Trifolium diffusum
Cucubalus multiflorus
Turritis patula
Digitalis lanata
Euphorbia salicifolia
Peucedanum sibericum
Artemisia scoparia
Tilia alba
Nymphæa lotus
Allium amplectens
Saxifraga cymosa
Brassica polymorpha
Chrysanthemum macrophyllum
Cerastium manticum

Hieracium grandiflorum
Bunias cochlarioides
Buphthalmum cordifolium
Leontodon lividum
Arabis Halleri
Scorzonnera rosea
——— angustifolia
Geranium divaricatum
Scutellaria peregrina
Astragalus campestris
Lamium orvala
Scutellaria alpina
Cardamine chelidonia
Trigonella monspeliaca
Pinus pumilio.

The third volume, which was published several years after the two former, contains the following plants:

Allium fuscum
——— flexum
Arenaria gracilis
Atriplex oblongifolia
——— microsperma
Asparagus sylvaticus
Aristolochia pallida
Biscutella alpestris
Bupleurum balbense
Carduus collinus
——— hamulosus
——— alpestris
Cineraria rivularis
Crepis agrestis
Cerastium ciliatum
Cucubalus mollissimus
Campanula lilifolia
——— spathulata
——— multiflora
Chrysanthemum rotundifolium
——— ——— molle
Cytisus falcatus
——— alpinus
Chieranthus cuspidatus
——— ——— junceus
Chironea uliginosa
Convolvulus sylvaticus
Dianthus petræus
Digitalis fuscescens
Delphinium alpinum
Dentaria glandulosa
Euphorbia viridiflora
Eryngium amethystinum
Epipactis microphylla
Erythraca emarginata
Galium infestum
Gentiana utriculosa
——— pyrenaica
Hieracium flexuosum
——— ramosum
——— pallescens
——— Croaticum
——— stoloniflorum
Helleborus atrorubens
Hesperis Africana
Hypericum alpinum
Iris Hungarica
Lasertipium alpinum
Lotus gracilis
Melissa alba
——— subnuda
Mespilus coccinea
Orobus lævigatus
Onosma arenaria
Peucidanum longifolium
Plantago Hungarica
Pastinaca opopanax
Rubus agrestis
Rhamnus tinctorius
Rosa reversa
Scabiosa agrestis
——— lævigata
Silene pusilla
——— infracta
——— nemoralis
Senecio umbrosus
Scrophularia glandulosa
Solidago alpestris
Scandix fumarioides
Spiræa cana
——— oblongifolia
Trifolium expansum
——— parviflorum
——— palustre
——— reclinatum
Veronica incana
——— depauperata
Vicia oroboides
——— polyphylla
Viola declinata.

The engravings of this work, which were executed by artists of Vienna, are good; and the introductory address contains

much interesting matter on the natural history and condition of Hungary. The two new genera, the *Kitaibelia* and the *Waldsteinia*, were named by Wildenow, who has given a description of each of them in the Transactions of the Society of Natural History of Berlin for the year 1799. The Flora of Hungary has at different times received considerable elucidation from the labours of the botanist. Amongst others may be mentioned the *Flora Keszthelyensis*, by Professor Liebald; the *Flora Carpathorum* of Wahlenberg, published at Göttingen in 1814; the researches of our own countryman Townson; and the work, as yet I believe unfinished, of Professor Baumgarten. Still, however, a wide field for discovery is open in this extensive country, which presents within itself every variety of climate and of soil.

One afternoon, by appointment, I met Professor Pasquich, who, as an astronomer and a mathematician, holds a most distinguished rank amongst the scientific men within the Austrian dominions, and I accompanied him to the Observatory which is built upon the Blocksberg, a rocky hill standing a little to the south of the fortress of Ofen, the elevation of which is 85 métres, or 278 feet English, above the level of the Danube. This building, which is quite new, and was erected under the superintendence of the present professor, is in all respects incomparably preferable to the Old Observatory attached to the Palace at Ofen. The new situation is most admirable for the purposes of observation. To the S. S. E. and S. W. the eye stretches over a vast plain, and the horizon is perfectly uninterrupted. To the N., however, and N. W., about one-third of the horizon is broken by mountains.

Neither pains nor expence has been spared to render the building worthy of the situation. The whole foundation is laid upon the rock, and all the principal instruments are placed up-

on marble pillars, firmly fixed into it, and altogether independent of the building. All these are in a square room, provided with proper apertures, to allow the instruments the requisite range of observation. Through the middle of the room is a railed passage, intended for spectators and visitors, to prevent any inconvenience from their touching the instruments. To the east and the west of this principal room are constructed two low towers, in the middle of which rise two columns of large stones, four feet square, which are formed into circular pillars by additional brick-work. Each of these is surrounded by a spiral stair-case, which is detached from the central mass of stone-work and brick by a space of about two inches, the stairs being fixed into the outer wall of the tower. Upon the tops of these columns the circular and the equatorial instruments are placed. These rest solely upon the rock, and no one part of the building, not even the floor upon which the observer stands, has any connection with them. Over the towers, and supported entirely by the external walls, are two moveable copper domes, which turn round the whole circle. Thus every possible precaution has been taken to prevent any inaccuracy in the observations. All the instruments were made by a celebrated artist at Munich, who is allowed to approach very nearly to the excellence of the London makers. The Professor intended to take his first observations from the New Observatory upon the 27th of May, when the planet Herschel would be in opposition; and from the admirable situation and structure of the building, as well as the ardour with which the Palatine seems to espouse the cause, we may hereafter expect much interesting astronomical discovery at Buda. The view which we enjoyed from the Observatory was truly superb. We overlooked even the fortress, and saw the town of Old Ofen, stretching along the

banks of the river, to a great distance. On the opposite side of the river we looked directly down on the large city of Pesth. Between the two flowed, at our feet, the majestic Danube, losing itself to the south in an endless plain, and, after being divided by finely wooded islands towards the north, becoming concealed amongst the broken mountains. The river was studded with numerous floating mills, and crossed by the long bridge of boats, which looked like a cord stretched between the opposite banks. As we admired the scene, the clouds, which had been for some time threatening, began to thicken around our feet, and we were, for a few moments, surrounded by all the grandeur of a thunder storm.

This elevated spot, which is generally quite unfrequented by the people, becomes, at certain periods, the scene of festivity and mirth; and its commanding situation seems to inspire an enthusiastic pleasure in the hearts of those who enjoy it. This has, in some degree, infused itself into the descriptions of the native writers; to one of whom I shall make my readers indebted for a description of the festival of Easter Monday.

"In one respect, this festival," says the author, "is altogether singular, as it has no other object than the assembling of a vast concourse of people, in order that they may pass their time in cheerfulness, till the night closes upon them. The scene is particularly beautiful on that side of the hill which faces towards the fortress of Ofen. The Blocksberg is crowded with people, and discovers only at its skirts any appearance of turf. An uninterrupted multitude press, by a winding path, towards the summit; and the mountain, bounded on one side by the precipice which hangs over the Danube, and on the other by vineyards, scarcely affords space for the numbers who resort to it.

"I was sensibly impressed with the happiness enjoyed by the

A VIEW OF THE FORTRESS OF BUDA AND A PART OF PESTH, TAKEN NEAR THE OBSERVATORY.

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assembled multitude. I, too, felt how delightful it would be, and determined to participate in so animated a scene. To oblige a friend, I agreed to accompany him in a carriage. The road we pursued, which is not very steep, is by far the longest and the least interesting. We passed the stations which led to a mountain of Calvary, where a simple cross is erected, and we soon afterwards reached the place we sought. But who can describe it as it then appeared? Scarcely had we stopt to survey an object, when a thick swarm of hundreds urged us forwards contrary to our inclination, and we immediately found ourselves in a place far distant before we could fix our eyes upon the spot which had attracted our attention. Here stood waggons with large casks of wine and beer, around which a hundred busy hands and a hundred thirsty mouths found employment; tents where they quarrelled for honey-cakes; others filled with tobacco-pipes, rosaries, pictures, toys, combs, and buttons; booths where lotteries were drawn; tables upon which fat mutton was served out, and times past recalled over many a glass of old Ofener wine. Add to these, groups of mischievous boys who, in open day, throw fire-works in the air; old men who, weak through years and clouded with wine, can scarcely retrace the path which leads them home; mothers calling to their gaily dressed daughters, that their trains and petticoats are trampled under foot; beggars who boldly claim your charity; and misers who never afford their's;—all these mixed in every possible variety, and crowded together, form a partial sketch of that which, in its whole extent, scarcely admits of description. This waving and perplexing multitude may amuse, but fatigues both body and mind, and would be but little capable of repaying the labour, if the gratification of curiosity were unaccompanied by feelings of greater value. Ruined walls point out, upon the highest summit of the rock,

the situation of an ancient Blockhouse, from which the hill has derived its name. It lies higher than the place where the festive crowd enjoyed their amusements. I sat there to rest myself, and my sight wandered in the distance. The view towards the fortress is so beautiful, that, to the mind absorbed in its contemplation, the noise of the surrounding multitude is lost. A stone rolling from the ruin, and plunging into the abyss below, startled, or I may say awoke me; I beheld in this ruined wall, the fearful battery which once thundered to lay waste the city; I imagined I saw these beautiful vallies and plains bestrewed with the bodies of the thousands who had fallen, still wet with the blood of heroes; the Danube, from whose wave the rays of the setting sun were reflected, appeared reddened with blood; I beheld the city burst into flames, and the exultation of the rejoicing citizens appeared to me the triumphal cry of the victor. The picture of ages which have passed! But the strongest efforts of imagination grow weak, and every image of the heated fancy, which recals to us such scenes, must vanish, when the mind, again collected, realizes to itself these two flourishing cities, and this happy concourse of people."

Such is the description of the impressions excited by the contemplation of the cheerful scenes which are occasionally witnessed at Ofen. For myself, I seldom approached the spot without experiencing a momentary feeling of a less pleasing kind. It arose from the picture of human degradation, exposed, I am inclined to think, too openly around the fortress; for the neighbouring streets are seldom free from the clanking of chains, and the miserable figures of malefactors performing their tasks, under the eye of guards and officers. Such public exhibitions probably harden rather than reform offenders;

and certainly pity for their sufferings tends to obliterate the detestation of their crimes in the heart of the spectator.

As I returned across the bridge towards Pesth, the foot-path, which is separated from the carriage-road by a railing, was obstructed by an aged man and woman, who were supporting each other in their tottering steps. A little girl, about ten years old, who stood before me, looked back and exclaimed, with a simple smile, "That is old indeed."—"How old are they, my little girl?"—"Oh, Sir, the woman is a hundred and ten, and the man is nearly a hundred,—I hope I shall never be so old."—"To what age then do you wish to live?"—"Not past thirty, Sir." It was the innocent answer of one who had not yet learnt to appreciate the shortness of years which are gone by. These two old people may be classed with some who have been brought forward, by zealous Hungarians, in proof of the falseness of the aspersions which have been thrown on the climate of their native country. For we are told, that, towards the end of last century, Berka died at the age of 125; that a bird-fancyer, in the Invalid house of Pesth, had passed his hundredth year; that Ivan Rovin, in Walachia, lived to the extraordinary age of 172; and Petrus Zart to that of 145; and that Hacquet collected above twenty cases more of a similar nature. When I was at Csurgo, in the south-west of Hungary, I was told that two individuals lived in that village, each of whom was above a hundred. Such cases, however, go but a little way towards proving the healthiness of a country; few climates are so unpropitious as not to afford some instances of longevity.

Amongst the objects of curiosity which attracted my attention at Buda, the public warm-baths are too singular to be forgotten. They are supplied by five or six springs of different degrees of warmth, proceeding from the foot of the rocks on

which Ofen and the observatory stand. Many of them are very ancient buildings, some supposed to be of Roman, others of Turkish construction. At each of the bathing-houses are public and private baths. Some of the latter are very comfortable, and much frequented by the higher class of inhabitants. With respect to the public baths, little can be said in their praise. A slight account of the first I visited, and which I think was called the bruch-bath, will supply a faithful description of the whole. On entering from the open air, the room, filled with steam, was so insufferably hot, as almost to oblige us to retire. In addition to this, it appeared dark; but in a few moments both our bodies and eyes became accustomed to their new situations. The apartment was spacious, the centre being occupied by a circular basin under a dome supported by pillars. The descent into this is by two steps ranging round the whole of its circumference. Here we beheld ten or twenty persons of each sex, partially covered with linen drawers and the long tresses which fell loosely from their heads, amusing themselves by splashing in the hot sulphureous water. Disgusting as this was, it formed the least disagreeable part of the scene. On the outside of the pillars, the floor was paved, and there lay, at full length, numerous human creatures, indulging, amidst the fumes, a kind of lethargic slumber; others lay upon the steps, and submitted to the kneading practised upon them by old women employed for the purpose; some, as if resting from their labours, lay stretched upon benches; and in different corners were groups of naked families, enjoying their mid-day meal, sour crout and sausages, amidst all the luxury of a profuse perspiration. To complete the scene, there was a row of half-naked figures, like those in the bath, on whom a poor miserable surgeon was practising the operations of cupping and scarification, studiously inflict-

ing as many wounds, and making as much shew of blood as possible, in order to satisfy the immoderate appetite of the Hungarian peasant for this species of medical treatment. With such a mixture of disgusting objects, it never before happened to me to meet, and, almost faint with heat, I was glad to make my escape; yet my curiosity led me to several others, but in none was the construction of the chamber so picturesque. The enjoyments of the baths, however, were the same.

The police regulations of Pesth are, in many cases, very minute, but not sufficient to prevent the depredations of robbers, who have often associated themselves in numbers, which would not disgrace the annals of crime either in London or in Paris. Particular care has been taken to prevent the extension of fires, and the laws adopted on this subject, will give some idea of the character of the police. These are rendered the more essential, as no such establishments are known in Hungary as insurance-companies, which relieve private individuals from so great a share of their anxiety. The regulations which, in the original, published in 1808, occupy twenty-four folio pages, are in substance as follows: They first refer to means of prevention; and secondly to the diminution of the injury when fires have actually taken place. No one is permitted to build a house of any kind, without previously submitting the plan to the magistrates and the commissioners of building. Thatched roofs and wooden chimnies are prohibited; and even those which previously existed, are not suffered to remain after a fixed period. No tradesman, who by his occupation employs fires, is suffered to settle in the town, or to change his residence, without permission from the magistrates. Certain trades, as those of the smith and carpenter, are not allowed under the same roof. Hay and straw is prohibited in the yards of houses. No person is suffered to have more than

four pounds of gunpowder in his house. The use of torches is permitted only in certain parts of the town; and several other regulations of the same kind are enforced. The whole town and suburbs are divided into twelve districts; and every house is visited at least twice a-year by commissioners appointed for the purpose, who take with them carpenters and masons, and afterwards make their report to the magistrates.

When a fire has actually taken place, in spite of these precautions, a very heavy responsibility is placed upon any one who attempts to keep it secret; and, that the most timely information may be obtained, three watchmen are constantly on duty on a high tower, one of whom is enjoined, upon the first suspicion of a fire, to acquaint the city-watch, and send fire-engines to the spot with as little publicity as possible; but, as soon as the fact is fully ascertained, the second watchman declares audibly, by means of a speaking trumpet, the place in which the fire has taken place; and the third strikes a bell with one, two, three, or four blows, according to the district of the town to which he would call the public attention. In order that the means of extinguishing the fire may not be wanting, it is ordered that every householder shall have such casks of water as the commissioners shall think fit on the ground floor, or in some place very near at hand; that every house, however small, be provided with a ladder, a fire-hook, one or two leathern buckets, wooden water-syringes, an axe, and a large lanthorn to light the streets when the fire breaks out in the night; and, in larger houses, iron crows, and shovels, and a greater number of buckets, are to be kept. All these implements are to be marked with the number of the house to which they belong, and, together with the fire-engines of the town and suburbs, are to be examined monthly by the commissioners. A corporal and four privates of the town-guard are ap-

pointed every day to be in readiness, to repair immediately to any fire which occurs, and keep watch over the goods which are saved. While the Burger-master hastens to the council-house, the Stadtrichter and the commissioner of fires attached to the district go directly to the spot, to maintain order, and encourage the exertions of the people.

Certain citizens are appointed, who open the houses in which the public fire-engines are kept, and others who are to superintend the conducting of them to the place. The barriers of the town are closed, and no stranger or suspected person is allowed to escape. The surgeons and priests are ordered to be at hand. No one but the Palatine and the Brigade General is suffered to approach the spot on horseback. The Stadtrichter and the Stadthaupman are distinguished by red and white hat-bands; every magistrate wears a white one, and the commissioner of fires one of red and yellow. Every householder in the neighbourhood, and the streets leading to it, is forced, under a penalty of 25 florins, to light up his house with lanthorns, or with candles on the inside. The glaziers and the sculptors have to pay attention to this. The brewers, the millers, the coachmasters, and the hackney-coachmen, are bound to afford means of conveyance. The management of the fire-engines is committed to the coppersmiths, metal-founders, gun-makers, knifegrinders, and watchmakers. The supply of water, and the labour of the engines, is entrusted to the locksmiths, braziers, wheelwrights, potters, coopers, butchers, hatters, farriers, and nailsmiths. For pumping water out of the Danube, the tanners, fishermen, millers, and boatmen, for lifting water out of the wells, the well-sinkers, bakers, gardeners, and starchmakers, are summoned. The brushmakers, glovers, basketmakers, furriers, weavers, nailers, harnessmakers, tailors, bucklemakers, and shoemakers, are to form the

his residence between Ofen and Wissegrad. Sigismund, at the time his political views against the nobles induced him to increase the privileges of the free towns, greatly favoured Pesth. He conferred upon it the right of holding markets, and attempted, though in vain, to throw a bridge over the Danube, to effect a junction with Ofen. After this, Pesth and the neighbouring plains of the Rakos, on which the public assembly of the states was accustomed to be held, became a frequent scene of the most tumultuous meetings, particularly at the elections of Mathias and Wladislaus, to fill, in succession, the vacant throne. Wladislaus removed, for a time, the meetings of the states, from the plain near Pesth, into the town of Ofen. But the nobles and states would not brook this innovation, and accordingly decreed, that, for the three years, 1498, 1499, and 1500, there should be an annual assembly on the Rakos, and that, afterwards, they should meet every third year in the same place. In 1514, when Thomas, Archbishop of Gran, had obtained a bull from Pope Leo X., offering absolution to all those who would join the holy standard about to be raised against the Turks, a lawless troop, amounting to about 40,000, collected themselves near Pesth, under a leader named Droscha. The nobles, alarmed at the extensive desertions of their peasants, who rejoiced at the opportunity now offered of freeing themselves from slavery, resorted to strong measures to restrain them. On this Droscha gave up the suburbs of Pesth to the rage of his followers, who besieged the town itself; nor was it till above 70,000 men, as historians relate, had lost their lives, that this insurrection was quelled, and the leader put to death. In 1518, and some following years, the assembly of the states was removed from Pesth, and held alternately at Ofen or at Bacs; but, in 1523, Pesth regained this privilege. The year 1525 was marked by tumul-

tuous meetings of the nobles, both in Pesth and on the Rakos. The Turks, taking advantage of the unsettled state of things, invaded Hungary in 1526, and, before the necessary preparations could be made, won the decisive battle of Mohacs, in which Ludovicus was killed. As Soliman came to Ofen, the Queen withdrew to Pressburg, and the Sultan took possession of Pesth. The town is described at that period as being of great consequence, protected by walls, and encompassed by extensive suburbs. The inhabitants were Germans and Hungarians; and a great many merchants from different countries were accustomed to resort thither, with a view of purchasing the sweet wines for exportation to Poland and Saxony. Soliman suffered his followers to pillage the town; he put a number of the inhabitants to the sword; and constructed a bridge of boats across the Danube, in order to facilitate the pursuit of his scattered enemies. Before the winter closed in, however, without any obvious reason he withdrew, leaving no garrison behind him.

On the retreat of the Turks, John Zapolya, Waiwode of Transylvania, had influence enough to place himself upon the throne of Hungary; but in 1527, Ferdinand of Austria came with a large army and took Ofen and Pesth, upon which Zapolya fled to the Turks for aid. In 1529, Soliman, at the head of 300,000 men, again entered Hungary, and a second time made himself master of Pesth, leaving it in possession of Zapolya, while he went forward to Vienna. On his return he left a garrison at Ofen, acknowledging John as the King of Hungary. In 1530, Ofen was besieged, but without effect; and the Turks, usurping full power in Pesth, established themselves more and more, converting the churches into mosques, and forming arsenals and a harbour for the fleet which they maintained on the Danube. After the death of Zapolya, in

1540, Ferdinand's troops took possession of Pesth and besieged Ofen, in which the widow of Zapolya defended herself successfully. The following year the Hungarian and Turkish troops from Ofen laid siege to Pesth, but were repulsed; and in the autumn the German and Hungarian troops from Pesth besieged Ofen. They made, however, but little impression, when, hearing of the advance of the Turks to relieve Ofen, they attempted to withdraw, but were dreadfully cut up in their retreat, and the Turkish admiral, Hassan, arriving, took possession of Pesth without difficulty. The sultan then made himself master of the fortress, which he garrisoned, and named Stephen Verbocz as regent. After this, both towns remained securely in the hands of the Turks, and a Turkish school was established at Ofen. In 1542, the sultan refusing the terms which were offered by Ferdinand, an army of 80,000 Germans, Italians, and Hungarians, assembled at Vienna, and marched to Pesth, but, after many attempts, were repulsed, and forced to retire to Vienna. Pesth was now, for nearly sixty years, held without molestation by the Turks, during which time it was greatly impoverished, and gradually deserted by the Christian inhabitants.

In 1598, Graf Adolf Schwartzenberg, and Graf Niklas Palfy, laid ineffectual siege to Ofen. In 1602, the Germans, under Generals Russworm and Schultz, got possession of Pesth, after some severe fighting, and nominated Albrecht Prinzenstein the governor. During 1603, there was a succession of skirmishing attacks between the Germans from Pesth, and the Turks from Ofen, in which, on several occasions, they did much injury to the respective towns. In 1604, Mahomet III. being dead, the Turks and Germans came to a conference at Pesth; but hostile movements having been discovered at Ofen, and fresh Turkish troops entering Hungary, the meeting was interrupted.

These Turkish troops were marching to besiege Gran, when the commandant of Pesth, taking sudden alarm, after destroying much of the fortifications, left the town, and thus the Turks, a fourth time, took possession of the place. In 1605, a conference was held between the vizier, Mehmed, and the Fürst Stefan Bolschkai, who, coming from Transylvania with 70,000 men, had made himself master of a large tract of Hungary. Pesth is described as being, at that time, reduced to a miserable condition, such, indeed, as might be expected from the constant sieges it had sustained, and the frequent changes which had taken place in its government. "No houses were entire, nearly all were razed to the ground; they were mere ruins. The churches were levelled to their foundation;—the town was divided by a dirty ditch;—the walls built up with mud and basket-work;—the inhabitants were few, and those of the lowest order;—no bridge united the towns, and, of trade, there was not a vestige left."

In 1684, Karl, Duke of Lothringen, advanced upon Pesth. The Turks, after setting fire to the town, retired to Ofen and destroyed the bridge; Karl, having extinguished the flames, took possession of Pesth, and, for five months, laid unsuccessful siege to Ofen, after which he retired, leaving the town once more in the possession of the Turks.

In 1686, a very large force came from Austria, under the Duke of Lothringen and the Prince of Baaden, and Pesth and Ofen successively fell into their hands. Pesth was again, at this time, most deplorably reduced. All the suburbs had been long demolished, the buildings of the town were in ruins, the inhabitants poor and miserable. From this period, however, the scene began to brighten, and the Emperor Leopold, having restored to it the privilege of a royal free town, took it under his special protection.

In 1703, a regular grant of privileges was conferred upon it, and the war which broke out between Austria and Turkey, in 1711, gave new spirit to the commerce of Pesth. It was adorned with public buildings, and its population and prosperity again increased, when, in 1724, the two higher courts of justice were permanently fixed in this city, and the period of their sittings greatly lengthened. In 1727, the extensive Hospital of Invalids was built; in 1784, the University, which seven years previously had been removed from Tyrnau to Ofen, was finally transferred to Pesth; and the last thirty years have been marked by a rapid progress in the extension and improvement of the town, and the increase and prosperity of its commerce.

After passing the bridge of Pesth, the road towards Vienna turns to the right through the lower street of Ofen, and the long village of Alt-Ofen, which is, in fact, a continuation of the same. The country, to the left of the road, rises a little, and is covered with vineyards, which yield a good red wine, much drunk in Austria, under the name of Ofener wine. Amongst these vineyards are some country seats, and a summer residence of the Palatine.

It is in this district, more perhaps than any other in Hungary, that the festivities of the vintage are maintained. And the Bacchanalian dance, by which the *Lesekranz*, or Garland, is accompanied, when the fruit is gathered in, has been thus described by an eye-witness, on the spot over which we are now passing. In the front of the procession a man rode in complete armour, bearing a red and white flag, after him came a Pagliazzo, a Harlequin, and other maskers, then appeared six young dancing-men, clothed completly in white, with red ribbons, and bows, and green velvet caps, and the same number of young women, dressed in a corresponding manner. Each held in the left hand a plate and glass, and in the right

a flask of wine. They danced and drank at the same time, in a manner which would require some practice. Then followed in couples eight men, and as many women, dressed in the same costume, holding in their right hands gilded shepherds' crooks, and their heads adorned with vine-leaves, flowers, and ribbons. Next came four women in the procession, dressed somewhat in the style of Hogarth's females, who bore the garland upon two poles. The garland was in the shape of a bell, skilfully formed, by weaving together the finest branches of the grape, and adorned with gold and ribbons; and lastly followed eight couples more, in the same dress, whose duty it was, from time to time, to relieve those who carried the garland. The people thronged in crowds; and thus the procession, accompanied by music, and midst the unceasing shouts of rejoicing, passed through the fortress and part of the suburbs, and then returned to the residence of the possessor of the vineyard, where the festival was concluded by a feast and dance.

The road continues for some time at a small distance from the river, and then turns up a valley to the left. We met a great many waggons heavily laden, and travelling Jews repairing to the fair, and soon after the government diligence, attended by two armed soldiers, who sat in the cabriolet. The country through which we passed, before we arrived at the first post, was in scenery not unlike the Scotch borders, open and bleak, but a considerable part of it cultivated with grain. Whilst waiting for a fresh carriage and horses, my attention was drawn to a cottage on the opposite side of the road, at which preparations were made for a funeral. The deceased was a child, and the coffin, covered with a muslin drapery, and adorned with bows of pink ribbon, was placed before the cottage door; a glass of holy water stood upon it, in which a brush was immersed; and as a crowd of women and children, with a

few men, collected around, each sprinkled water from the brush upon the coffin, and many placed themselves in attitudes of prayer. Soon after, the priest and clerk arrived, when the latter sang several hymns. The priest then moved slowly on; and a young woman, neatly dressed with a long plait of hair hanging down her back, adorned with blue and red ribbons, gently raised the coffin on her head and followed. The rest of the party formed themselves in procession, and repaired to the place of interment.

I have before had occasion to remark the expressions of feeling exhibited by the common people, on the melancholy occasion of the loss of friends. Something of the same character seems to prevail, not only amongst the Hungarians, but amongst all the different inhabitants of this country, and in some cases has been carried so far, that the local authorities have interfered to check its excessive indulgence. This was particularly remarkable in a decree of the magistrates of Hermanstadt in 1790, strictly enjoining the people to abstain from the custom of kissing the body of the deceased; and prohibiting the friends from lying on the coffin during the celebration of the funeral service.

After observing this simple ceremonial, I placed myself in another of the post-carriages, such as the road affords; and these conveyances are incredibly bad, considering that we are now upon the grand route between the cities of Vienna and Ofen, in which the supreme governments reside. They are not only without covers, but without any thing like springs to break the roughness of the road, and are built of unpainted boards, nailed together by a country carpenter, and just large enough to hold one person. They seldom have a seat, but a bundle of straw is thrown into the back part, over which the traveller may spread his cloak, and thus find a resting-place.

They always run upon four wheels, and are less commodious than the smallest English taxed cart. Of the country little can be said; it rises in gently swelling hills, and is adorned with vineyards. The rock is, in some parts, calcareous, and, lying within a few inches of the surface, is much decomposed. After two posts more of the same scenery, we came upon the Danube, at a spot where its banks are sandy. Indeed, the road passes under a sand cliff, in which I observed large balls of hardened sandstone, apparently formed in the situation which they now occupy, and not the rolled fragments of other rocks. In the evening I arrived at Szöny, where I slept. This little village was the birth place of the two twin-sisters Helena and Judith, of whose affecting history an account is given in the Philosophical Transactions. They lived to the age of 21 years, and then died in 1723, at the convent of the Ursulines in Pressburg, which they had fixed upon as their asylum.

Komorn is situated on the opposite bank of the river, and is celebrated for the ancient strength, both natural and artificial, of the fortress by which it is defended. This fortress occupies the corner formed by the junction of the Waag with the Danube. The older part of it was constructed as early as 1272, and two centuries afterwards was strengthened by Mathias Convinus. The newer parts of the fortifications were chiefly built by Ferdinand I. and Leopold I.; but Joseph the Second destroyed them. At present the town affords no particular objects of interest of which I am aware. It has suffered frequently during the latter half of the eighteenth century from earthquakes. The surrounding country yields tolerable wine, and considerable traffic is carried on at Komorn, both in this article, and in grain, fish, honey, and timber.

The whole road from Szöny, to the neighbourhood of Raab, is flat and wearisome; the soil is light, poor, and little

cultivated; immediately around Raab it is esteemed more fertile. This town was once celebrated as a fortress, but is now more important for its fairs and markets. It was market-day when I arrived there, and the streets were quite alive. Raab is in one respect like Vienna, having a glacis and open space between the walls and the suburbs; the population of the whole town amounts nearly to 11,000, of whom 5000 are within the fortifications. Several of the streets are built with regularity, and, besides three or four churches and a cathedral, it contains some handsome residences belonging to the families of Esterhazy, and of Zichy, the bishop's palace, and the public buildings belonging to the *comitatus*, and to the town-council. This town is likewise the seat of one of the district academies, of which, according to the system of education here publicly adopted, four are established in Hungary.

Somewhat to the south of Raab, a high point is seen amongst the hills, upon which stands the monastery of St Marton, an ancient residence of the Benedictine monks. This community suffered in common with the whole body of their brethren, from the reforming hand of Joseph II.; but, in the year 1802, when the present Emperor reinstated the Benedictine, the Cistercian, and the Præmonstratensian monks, restored to them their possessions and privileges, and confided to them many of the establishments for education, St Marton was again put into the hands of its ancient possessors, and Chrysostomus Nobák was appointed by the Emperor to the dignity of High Abbot. On this occasion a solemn rejoicing was celebrated, and the pious care of the Emperor was commemorated by the muse of Szerdahelyi.

The road now leaves the main stream of the Danube to the right, and follows a small branch. The banks are low, sandy, and marshy, slightly wooded with alders and willows. After two

posts we came to Weiselburg, where are some extensive government magazines, at which grain and other products of Hungary are collected. The next post, Ragendorf, is the property of the Duke Albert of Saxe-Teschen; a large village, where the peasants are in a particularly flourishing state. We afterwards travelled through Orosvar, a village, the property of Count Zichy, who has a large house situated exactly in the centre. Passing Köpesény, the next post town, which belongs to Prince Esterhazy, we soon arrived at the Hungarian frontiers, where I underwent a few questions with regard to contraband merchandise, and not only was treated without severity, but excited the admiration of the officers, when they learned that I neither smoked nor took snuff,—a phenomenon which we may safely affirm has very seldom come within their observation.

The approach to Haimburg, in this direction, is highly picturesque. A round castle, on the summit of a wooded hill, overlooks the town from the south, and a line of fortification runs from it to the town, joining the walls with which Haimburg is surrounded. The reader will perhaps remember that he has already accompanied me during one night at this place, when on the point of first entering Hungary; and from hence I returned to Vienna, on precisely the same road by which I left it.

CHAPTER VII.

Historical Sketch.—King of Hungary.—His Privileges.—His Power with respect to the Catholic, Protestant, and Greek Churches.—The Palatine and other Officers of State.—Nobles.—Free Citizens.—The Diet.—Revenue.—Army.

From the year 884, when Arpad, at the head of the people called Magyars, settled in Hungary, the government partook somewhat of the nature of an oligarchy, acknowledging the descendants of Arpad, under the title of dukes, as their chief, until Stephan, surnamed the *Holy*, springing from the same family, ascended the throne A. D. 997. This monarch was distinguished above all his predecessors, by the extent of his knowledge, the strength of his mind, and his zeal for Christianity. Resolved to put an end to the licentious abuse of power which was rapidly undermining all social order, and to establish his favourite religion, he could not but subject himself to the opposition of the nobles. His firmness and determination, however, shortly overcame all difficulties, and in the

space of two years he felt himself sufficiently powerful to subject the whole country to a regular system of church discipline; and having sought the confirmation of his work in the authority of the papal see, received a crown and cross from Pope Silvester II., who declared him the king and apostle of Hungary. In the year 1000, he was accordingly crowned, and soon after married Gisela, to whom he had been long betrothed. After this he carried on successful wars against Gyula, the ruling prince of Transylvania, and against the Bulgarians under Kean; and then turning his attention to the internal affairs of Hungary, he gave stability to the religion he had introduced; and at the assembly of the nobility and clergy at Gran in 1016, enacted a code of laws, which he had the full opportunity of carrying into effect during the twenty-two remaining years of his reign. This period was but little disturbed by foreign wars, and as Stephan drew towards the close of his life, having lost his only son, he nominated, as his successor, a nephew by the female line, passing over some whose claims to succession were better founded.

It would appear from all this, that the power of Stephan approached nearly to that of an absolute monarch; and the Hungarian people were at this time probably in a state of much greater equality, in respect to their political privileges, than succeeding events have permitted them to maintain. The whole nation was then divided into two classes, the *Servientes* and the *Contribuentes;* the former serving the state in person, and the latter giving supplies in money or produce. The *servientes* were again divided into first, *servientes puræ ac meræ nobilitatis,* who devoted themselves entirely to the service of the state, as officers of the crown, and from these the class of *nobles* took its origin: secondly, *conditionarii servientes,* who gave certain services to the state, and for the rest, bore a share in the contri-

butions; and, thirdly, *populi castrorum*, who formed a kind of royal guard for the defence of certain fortresses. Such was the division of the people under Stephan; and it appears that this state of things, with such variations as the lapse of ages must necessarily introduce, continued until the reign of Andreas II., who ascended the throne in 1205.

While this monarch was occupied in the crusades, the government was left in the hands of a regency, at the head of which was Meranius, Archbishop of Gran; the country was now disturbed by faction; and the nobles framed for themselves a system of privileges and immunities, which they obliged Andreas, on his return, to ratify and confirm, in the celebrated *golden bull*, drawn out in 1222. This is the grant to which the Hungarians proudly refer as the *magna charta* of their rights; but in drawing the analogy between it and the Magna Charta of England, seem totally to forget the great and important feature which marked the latter as securing the liberty of the *people;* whilst the *golden bull* rendered their slavery only the more abject, as it raised a powerful aristocracy even above the control of the crown, and threw every burden upon that class which was least able to support the weight.

From this time a constant warfare existed between the king and his nobles; every successive monarch felt the oppressive restraints which were laid upon his authority, and strove in some new way to free himself from his chains.

On the death of Andreas III. in 1301, by which the succession of the family of Arpad became extinct, the nobles elected a foreign prince to fill the vacant throne. This put into their hands fresh opportunities of extending their influence, and the contention between the monarch and the nobles grew every day more obstinate and warm. The high character of Mathias Corvinus placed a temporary check upon the pretensions of

the privileged body, but no sooner was he dead, than his successor Wladislaus was compelled to renounce all the acts and regulations of the former reign, and to sink into a still more painful subjection than any of his predecessors; and the powerful nobles taking advantage of a civil commotion which arose soon afterwards, under the pretext of a crusade, gave effectual proof of their determination to overwhelm the small remains of popular freedom.

The anarchy in which Hungary was involved grew daily more apparent, when the sudden descent of Soliman for a moment united all parties under the apprehension of common danger; the decisive battle of Mohacs, however, in 1526, soon placed the country in the hands of the Turks. Ludovicus II. having been slain in the battle, Zapolya obtained possession of the throne, but in the following year was dispossessed by Ferdinand I. of Austria. From this period the crown has descended without interruption in the Austrian family, although it was not till 1687 that the right of inheritance was formally acknowledged by the nobles, who, at the Reichstag held in that year at Pressburg, declared the succession to be fixed in the male descendants of Leopold I., and on their failure, on the Hapsburg family in Spain, in gratitude for the victory over the Turks and their allies under Emrich Tököli. (See Appendix.) When, however, Charles II. foresaw the probability of his dying without male issue, he endeavoured, throughout the whole of his dominions, to extend the right of succession to the female branches; and though the Hungarians long refused to acknowledge the right, they were at length overcome, and from respect towards the memory of the late king admitted Maria Theresia, at the Reichstag held at Pressburg in 1741, by acclamation to the royal dignity.

It is not my intention to enter at large into the features of

this distinguished reign; nor to speak of the innovations which vanished like a phantom on the death of the Emperor Joseph. In reference to the constitution, as secured by the golden bull of Andreas II., all the acts of the long succession of Austrian princes since the year 1527, have scarcely introduced a single fundamental change, and after a series of civil and religious commotions, which have perpetually agitated the country, in which the nobles, under the title of the *Stände*, have unceasingly testified their jealousy of the crown, and every assembly of the states has been a scene of confusion for the maintenance of the feudal privileges, the following short passage is believed, by one of the best authorities on the subject, to contain the sum and substance of the Hungarian constitution.

"Hungary is an hereditary, but limited monarchy; the King of Hungary has many, and great rights and prerogatives, more and greater than the King of Great Britain. But at the same time, great and numerous are the rights and the privileges of the Hungarian nobility, who alone, in the language of the state, are included under the appellation of the Hungarian people, *(populus,)* and are distinguished in a peculiar manner from the nobles of all other European nations, from the circumstance, that the seals and grants of their privileges have suffered least from the changes of time, and that the characteristic features of these rights, now in the beginning of the nineteenth century, approach nearer than any to those of the nobles in the days of the crusades."

This constitution in many respects, as it regards the King, Magnats, and Deputies in Diet assembled, bears as striking a resemblance to our own in its earlier periods, as that afforded by any of the northern nations; yet differs from it widely in every thing which relates to the lower order of the people.

The authority of the king is strictly limited by the existing

laws, which he has no power of abrogating or suspending, unless in concert with the assembled states, and by their consent. He is called upon to administer the laws according to their true import, and cannot interfere with the established forms of judicature. He, however, is considered the chief of all courts of justice, and he alone is invested with the privilege of pardoning offenders.

As head of the church, he nominates all archbishops and bishops, and nearly all abbots, provosts, and other ecclesiastical dignitaries. Under his appointment they are registered, and put in possession of their temporalities, but before they assume their spiritual functions, they must obtain a decree of consecration from the Pope. If, however, the oath imposed by the Pope should, in any point, be inconsistent with their previous oaths to the king, a power is reserved to the latter to declare it of no effect. In fact, all important ecclesiastical affairs are finally subject to his regulation and control.

The incomes of all vacant archbishopricks and bishopricks fall to the king, as well as the unbequeathed private property of archbishops and bishops. But the latter is then divided into three parts; one of which is retained by the crown, one given to the poor, and the remainder released to the relatives of the deceased. No bishop can devise his property by will, without the consent of the king.

The endowments of universities and public schools are placed at his disposal, and he appoints the professors and teachers.

The king makes war and peace, negociates treaties, and receives ambassadors.

His control is absolute over the army, and all military affairs, including the organization of the military frontiers, the recruiting of soldiers, and the levying of contributions for the

maintenance of wars, but not the services of the nobles, which he may demand, but the organization of which remains with the states.

The king calls together and prorogues the assembly of the states or diet at his pleasure, subject, however, to certain fundamental regulations. He there presides in person, or by representative, proposes the subjects for deliberation, and finally rejects or approves their decisions. He alone can create nobles, and grant titles, privileges, and immunities, or bestow charters to royal free towns. Such towns, however, can send no deputies to the diet until they have obtained the consent of that body.

He nominates all civil as well as military officers, except the Palatine, and the two ministers styled the Guardians of the Crown, and confirms the choice made by the free towns of their magistrates and council; but is bound to appoint, from the nobility of Hungary, to all the principal offices of state.

The king alone coins money; and the property of all mines which afford the precious metals is vested in him, and they are chiefly worked at the charges of the crown.

The administration and revenue of the posts, except in some particular instances, when it belongs to the lord of the territory in which they are established, is vested in the crown. Salt is a royal monopoly; tobacco was likewise, till latterly, considered in the same light, but this privilege has been relinquished, although the government still deals largely in that article. The hereditary property of all nobles who die without heirs falls to the king. Estates, forfeited for treason and other high crimes, come to him, as well as all unbequeathed personal property whatever, except that of citizens in the free towns and of peasants.

The executive authority of the king is administered through the medium of the Hungarian Chancery at Vienna, consisting of a Chancellor, Vice-Chancellor, and Counsellors. In connection with this is the Statthalterey, or council of state, residing constantly at Ofen, in subordination to which are the *comitatus*, or county courts, where the Obergespann presides.

In order, however, to give a more authentic account of the power exercised by the king in matters of religion, I shall here avail myself of information given by Schwartner, to whom I have already often referred. The king, by means of that full power with which he is endowed, under the title of the *Patronatsrecht*, bestows all vacant prelacies and benefices, and nominates through his own sovereign power (*dat, donat, confert;* and not *præsentat*, or *postulat*) all archbishops, bishops, and almost all abbots, provosts, and prebendaries; the few who, by a right conferred by the king, derive their offices from private patrons, having no seat in the Diet. Thus the nomination and election to the real, as well as to the titular prelacies, remains to the present day, as from the beginning of the Hungarian monarchy, an unalienable right of the crown. As soon, therefore, as any one is nominated by the king as archbishop, bishop, abbot, provost, &c., and is publicly declared such by the chancery of the court, and council of the state, he takes immediately his title and rank; as, for instance, a bishop, (*electus Episcopus,*) and after taking an oath to the king and council, (*per Deum immortalem*, without the addition *per omnes sanctos,*) and swearing allegiance, is installed by the Hungarian *Hofkammer*, entering immediately on the rights and privileges which belong to an Hungarian beneficed diocesan bishop; only he abstains from all jurisdiction in spiritual affairs, until he has obtained the decree of confirmation and consecration from Rome, which *præstitis præstandis* is never re-

fused. He is then regularly initiated into his office, (*Episcopus consecratus,*) and exercises that part of his functions to which he was not competent before receiving confirmation. Not long ago, the bishops of dioceses presented the vacant canonicats in their chapter instead of the king; but Maria Theresia took from the bishops, as the old incumbents died, this right, which had been yielded to them by the king; and, since 1802, the king alone presents to the prebendal stalls.

The incomes of vacant archbishopricks and bishopricks fall to the crown. The fiscal of the crown also takes possession of the acquired fortune of the bishop who dies without a will; but, in case a will exists, he is contented with one-third, and suffers the free bequeathing of one-third, the other third being settled, according to the convention of Cardinal Kollonitz in 1703, upon the clergy and seminary fund; and it is only by the king's particular permission, which, however, is not often refused, that a bishop can dispose of his own acquired fortune (his hereditary fortune is not here included) by testament according to his pleasure. The king may also require accounts to be rendered to him of all church and school incomes,—may found new bishopricks,—endow them with ancient church property,—regulate the incomes of those which are already established to pious purposes,—abolish monasteries,—prevent the acquisition of estates to existing monasteries, according to certain laws,—increase the number of churches, &c.

To his privileges also belong what is called the *jus placeti*, and the power of the king of Hungary to limit, according to his pleasure, the right of appeal to the Papal authority, the abuse of which was in former ages punished with death, and his farther right of scrutinizing the oath which the bishops have made to the Pope, and, when it is found to be inconsistent with the oath of allegiance which, on their appointment,

they have sworn to the king, of abolishing it altogether. To him likewise belongs the power of limiting the too great increase of monks in any monastery,—a privilege exercised by Maria Theresia; or of destroying, as Joseph II., the connection of a monastery with others established in foreign countries; or of putting an end to complete religious orders,—*for in Hungary the king is Pope.*

With respect to other religious parties, it is not as the follower of the holy Stephan, nor as the result of the extensive right of patronage, but on account of that sovereign right of every prince, his *right as the supreme guardian of the state*, that the king of Hungary is authorized to protect the Protestants in their lawful rights and privileges against all injuries, and is called upon to keep such a watch over all the undertakings and establishments of that church, that it may not overstep the lawful bounds of freedom, or in any way prove injurious to the state.

The rights of the *Evangelical Church* in Hungary, as they were fixed at the Vienna treaty of 1606, and by that of Lintz in 1645, were in many respects similar to those of the German Protestants, as granted at the treaty of Westphalia; but many were the pretexts under which attempts were made to destroy the advantages which had been so dearly obtained; and, before many years had elapsed, the Hungarian Hugenots scarcely dared to appeal openly to these treaties, and to the laws which followed in the year 1608 and 1647,—because these, it was objected, were obtained by arms,—because Protestant preachers had encouraged the rash attempts of Tököli,—because the nobleman to whom a village belonged had power to force his religion upon his peasants,—because neither of these treaties referred to the countries which had been taken from the Turks, &c. Thus no longer as a right, but as an act of kind-

ness, did the government tolerate the dwindled Protestant Church at the Reichstag held at Ædenburg in 1681. At length, it was deemed unnecessary to take any notice before the assembled states of the existence of a *little handful* of people, which exceeded in number the whole collected population of Sweden; and, by a resolution in 1715, they were surrendered altogether to the kindness or severity of the court. By these means, and by another resolution, passed in 1731, the distress of this body was increased, and the Evangelical Church was on the brink of destruction, when Joseph II. began his work of renovation, and again avowed tolerance to be the native inhabitant of Hungary. The philosophic king Leopold went still farther; he would hear neither of doubtful toleration, nor of private worship; he strove to restore to the innocent what the treaties of the seventeenth century had granted. His humane resolution was declared on the 7th of November 1790, before the states assembled at Pressburg. The 26th article of Leopold's edict of religion, issued in 1791, contains the sum of the rights of the Evangelical Church, both of the Augsburg and Swiss confession, as they relate either to the state or to their Catholic fellow-citizens; and its contents are as follow:

First, with respect to the state. The foundation of these rights is laid in the treaty of Vienna in 1606, and in that of Lintz in 1645. All laws, privileges, and orders, since enacted in contradiction to these treaties, are null and void; as is also the protest of the Catholic clergy and some laymen, entered at the assembly of the states in 1791, against the new edict of religion. The Evangelical religious worship is throughout every part of Hungary free and open, (Dalmatia, Croatia, and Sclavonia excepted, where the professors of this faith are neither capable of holding estates, nor of fulfilling offices,) wherever the contributors are in sufficient numbers, and possessed of

sufficient wealth, to support a preacher and a church. They are eligible to all offices of state, and to all employments; on entering upon which, they shall no longer be required to swear by the "Virgin Mary and all the Saints;" and throughout shall be called upon to assist in no ceremonies which are contrary to their religion, as in processions and festivals. They have their own schools and gymnasia, and may, if it be necessary, establish more, and those of a higher class; but for this the consent of the king is required. The censorship of Protestant religious books, in which, however, as is just, the Catholic faith must not be ridiculed, is left to themselves; and their youth are allowed freely to frequent foreign universities. The care of other pious institutions remains entirely with themselves; but these must be conducted scrupulously according to the will of the founder; on which account, the king expressly reserves for himself the supreme superintendence of them, as well as of the whole church and school establishments of the Protestants.

Secondly, with respect to the Catholic Church. The Evangelical of both confessions are exempt from all jurisdictions of Catholic bishops, and are authorized to exercise ecclesiastical powers, including judgment in marriage cases,—to establish consistories, and to hold synods; these, however, only with the approval of the king, and without injury to his supreme right of inspection. All and every contribution to the Catholic preacher and schoolmaster, except the bishop's tithes, cease, as well as all mutual claims whatever, with the exception of those which are specifically named. The Protestants are not called upon to contribute to the Catholics, either in money or in labour; nor do Catholics, on the other hand, contribute to the Protestants, when new churches or schools are to be established or built. A Protestant is at full liberty to embrace the Catholic faith; but a Catholic must not

become a Protestant, without the knowledge and consent of the king. All the children of mixed marriages, in which the father is a Catholic, are to be of that religion ; and a division, according to the sexes, take place only when the father is either of the Lutheran or Reformed Church. All processes which arise respecting mixed marriages are to be brought before the bishop's consistory court.

Thirdly, The mutual relationship of the two Protestant churches with each other. This is not determined by any direct laws ; but no case is known in which the churches have disagreed ; they live in perfect harmony together, and having suffered equally, the bond of union has been cemented, and, as an enlightened theology extends itself daily, both amongst the Lutherans and the members of the reformed church, it may be anticipated with confidence, that the hearty tolerance between these two bodies, which appear in the Hungarian law undivided, will not only continue, but, as in Germany, increase.

The next religious belief which claims attention is that of the *Ununited Greek Church.* It was first at the Reichstag, held in 1791, that the adherents of the eastern church in Hungary were, by a solemn act of government, secured by the states in the enjoyment of civil and religious liberty, and in the following year their bishops obtained a seat and voice in the assembly of the states. They now form as little as any other of the Sclavonian people, a separate nation divided from the Hungarians ; they are like the Catholic and Protestant Hungarians, capable of holding offices and estates, and like them in civil rights, stand under the protection of the court and the state. In some respects they have an advantage over the Evangelical magnats and nobles, since their rights as citizens are not confined to Hungary alone, but extend

throughout the whole of the military provinces, Croatia, and Sclavonia. Their religious worship is every where free and open; they claim exemption from tithe, and they pay observance to the old calendar. The possessions of their clergy, both high and low, even when they die intestate, do not fall to the crown; nor has this any share in the incomes of vacant bishopricks. They are free from the jurisdiction of the Catholic diocesan, and stand, with respect to the affairs of the church, under their own supreme head, who is the metropolitan of Carlowitz. This functionary is independent of any other patriarch, and chosen by 75 plenipotentiaries of the oriental Greek church, deputed to the Congress by the ecclesiastical body, the citizens, and the military force of the frontiers, in presence of a commissioner appointed by the king; he is afterwards, on taking the appointed oath of allegiance, inducted into his office, and put in possession of the temporality granted by the court to the archbishop for the time being. Six bishops, besides those of Transylvania, are his suffragans; every vacancy in this number is filled by the majority of votes amongst the remainder, and the bishop newly chosen, after taking a most solemn oath, is inducted into his office by a plenipotentiary of the king. The sovereign reserves to himself the right of translating bishops from one diocese to another.

In general, the mutual relation between the king and the head and the branches of the Greek church, is founded on those solemn and extensive privileges, by means of which, (particularly about the close of the seventeenth century, before the treaty of Carlowitz,) its members were induced, under the guidance of the Patriarch Arsenius Csernovicz, to pass into Hungary from the Turkish frontier provinces.

We here behold a fine example of three religions fully to-

lerated, and wisely restrained; the professors of each, crippled by no disabilities, loaded with no unjust burdens, worshipping their God, yet obedient to their king, admitted to all the rights of citizens, under the fair condition of submitting to the constituted authorities of the country in which they live. While we admire the beauty of this picture, let us not neglect the superscription, πορεύου, καὶ σὺ ποίει ὁμοίως.

Amongst the offices of the state, that of *Palatine* follows immediately after the king. This dignity is apparently as ancient as that of the king itself, but it was not till the year 1526 that it became an office for life. The Palatine is chosen by the states, from four candidates nominated by the king, and this must take place, by the laws of the constitution, within a year after the office becomes vacant. His duties are of a very high and important nature; he is protector of the throne during the minority of the king, and president of the chamber of magnats in the diet,—president of the statthalterey,—mediator when circumstances require an interference between the king and the states,—he presides in the septemviral council, and nominates the vice Palatine, who sits in the royal council, and is chief of the insurrection, or military array of the nobles in times of danger. A considerable part of his income arises from his being governor of the privileged districts of Cumania and Jazyga,—he is also Obergespann, or chief executive magistrate of the comitatus of Pesth.

The *Locumtenens regius*, or Viceroy, during the necessary absence of the king, was formerly a temporary office, with powers ascertained upon each occasion. It was generally occupied by a prelate, who sometimes held the reigns of government, without even the existence of a Palatine, when that office was not for life; but it is often now vested in the person of the Palatine. It was held by the present Emperor of Austria,

and afterwards by his brother-in-law, the Duke Albert of Saxe-Teschen. In 1795, the Archduke Joseph was declared *Locumtenens;* in the following year he was invested with the dignity of Palatine.

The *Judex Curiæ Regiæ* follows next in rank; he has much influence in the statthalterey, and in the juridical proceedings of the septemviral council. During the absence of the Palatine, he presides both in the diet and at the septemviral council; he also nominates a *vice Judex curiæ regiæ*, who has a voice at the king's council, or *Königliche tafel*, which sits at Buda.

After him come, in order of precedence, the *Bannus* or Governor of Croatia, of Dalmatia, and of Sclavonia; but the power of these nobles is at present much more limited, even in their peculiar districts, than formerly.

The *Tavernicus* held, until the reign of Ferdinand the First, the supreme direction of the royal revenue; at present, however, his chief office is the presidency of the *Sedes Tavernicalis*, to which court all appeals are made against judgments passed by the magistrates of the royal free towns.

All the officers of whom I have spoken, together with several others under the titles of marshals, chamberlains, &c. form what are called the barons of the kingdom, *(Reichs Baronen;)* the oath of each individual of whom, in a court of justice, is by ancient custom considered as equivalent to the oaths of ten other nobles. After these may be mentioned the great class of nobles.

The *Magnats*, or superior nobles, and the dignitaries of the church, are in a particular manner distinguished from all others, by being summoned individually to the diet, and by being empowered to send representatives, if they are not able to attend in person. These magnats, or high nobility, acquire

their superiority either from office or from inheritance. Of the former are the *Reichs Baronen* just mentioned, and the *Obergespanns*, who consist of the Palatine, the Archbishops of Gran and Erlau, the chiefs of twelve families in which the office is hereditary, and the remainder chosen by the king. Of the magnats by inheritance are the four princely families of Hungary, Esterhazy, Batthyani, Grassalkovits, and Palfi, ninety-nine of the families of counts, and eighty-eight of the families of barons. Of the prelates, the Archbishop of Gran is the first, being the primate of Hungary, and the connected provinces. Next to him is the Archbishop of Erlau; and then follows the Bishop of Fünfkirchen.

All magnats, prelates, nobles, and the deputies of free towns, take a share in the consultations of the public meetings of the comitatus to which they belong, or in which they have estates. In these meetings the Obergespann presides; they here discuss all matters of a public nature, connected with the interests and good order of the comitatus; form instructions for those who are deputed to the diet; promulgate the royal ordinances; elect the officers of the district, who are generally appointed every third year; assess the contributions which are to be levied on the peasants; and form regulations of local police. The court of the comitatus has likewise an extensive jurisdiction, both in civil and criminal processes originating in this court, and in cases brought before it by appeal from the *Herrenstuhl*, or courts held by the nobles on their own estates.

Besides the privilege of holding judicial proceedings in their own courts, the *Herrenstuhl*, on all matters originating within the limits of their estate, or which relate to their peasantry, the nobles possess many and extensive privileges; for instance, no noble is liable to arrest, except for trea-

son, or when taken in the act of murder or robbery. In other cases, he must be repeatedly cited to appear, and it is only after proof of aggravated contempt that any force can be used against him. Formerly, no person who was not noble could obtain justice from a noble, and still the peasant can only demand justice through the medium of his lord, and the citizen only by means of the magistracy or appointed authorities of the free town to which he belongs. If a person not noble lays violent hands upon one who is so, he is liable by law to the punishment of death, or that which is more frequently inflicted, the loss of all his personal and real property, with, however, the right of reclaiming the latter for one-tenth of its actual value. Nobles only, or such as possess the king's privilege of nobility, can hold lands and exercise authority over peasants. They are free from all taxes and imposts. They are, however, obliged personally to serve the king when called upon. But if they contribute any thing to the expences of the state, it is always a matter of free will. The hereditary property of a noble family is so protected by the law, that the actual possessor is restrained from every act which can essentially diminish its value, or deprive his heirs of any part of their legal inheritance; but in case no natural heir remains, the whole reverts to the crown.

Certain offices are limited to the inferior nobles, such is the office of *Vicegespann* in each comitatus, who is required to be quite independent of the great local landed interests; such also is the representative of the king, *(personalis præsentiæ regiæ in judiciis Locumtenens,)* who presides in the lower chamber of the diet; and it is, of course, supposed that the inferior nobles only have the choice of the representatives sent by each comitatus to that assembly, as the magnats attend in person.

The citizens of royal free towns form another class of privileged persons, inferior to the nobles, yet possessed of many rights. Any violence upon the person of a free citizen is strongly resented by law. They must be cited before their own courts. They are free from tolls,—are eligible to military and civil offices; in certain judicial cases they can appeal from their own court to the court of the *Tavernicus*, and from that to the septemviral council, and finally to the king. They are, however, subject to many duties to the king;—to have soldiers quartered upon them;—to furnish a certain number of recruits;—to go to the field, as forming part of the insurrection, with the nobles;—to contribute to the town duties. A citizen, unless noble, cannot possess lands;—and he cannot, without the assistance, and in the name of the magistrates, demand justice against a noble.

A free town sends its own representative to the diet;—can possess lands and villages with all the lord's rights, and inherit all the unbequeathed property of the citizens. It elects magistrates yearly, who administer justice and enact local regulations.

Besides the royal free towns, there are some small districts in Hungary, which, by peculiar services to the monarchs, have obtained distinctive rights; and amongst these, the districts called *Jazyga* and *Cumania* send two deputies to the diet, as do also the *Haiduck towns.*

The *Diet*, or general assembly of the states, from the year 1298 to 1526, was held in the open air, near Pesth, and was frequently attended by a concourse of above 80,000 persons. In that year, Ferdinand the First removed it from the open plains into the town; and it is now left to the will of the king to call together the states, either in Ofen or Pressburg, or in any other town within the boundaries of Hungary. Accord-

ing to the laws, in the usual course of things, the diet should be assembled every five years; but upon the succession of a king, the diet is to be called for his coronation within six months after the last king's death. A new Palatine must likewise be chosen by the diet, within one year after a vacancy has occurred. When the states are to be assembled, the king calls the members by notices; in which the business about to occupy their attention is frequently mentioned; and thus an opportunity is given for considering the subject previously in the comitatus meetings, and in the corresponding meetings in the free cities. For the period of thirty days before the assembling of the diet, until the return of the deputies, all inferior courts of justice, unless any very urgent matters call for immediate discussion, are closed. The expences of the king and officers of state, during the diet, are discharged by a rate upon the free towns and villages. The deputies from each comitatus and free town have their expences paid by the body which sends them.

From four to six weeks after the publication of the royal summons, the diet commences; and to give a more precise idea of the persons who compose this assembly, I shall here copy a list of those who were present at the diet of 1808.

The Palatine,
2 Catholic Archbishops,
16 Bishops of Dioceses,
10 Titular Bishops,
1 Benedictine Prelate,
1 Præmonstratensian Prelate,
241 Magnats, comprising,
Reichs Barons,
Obergespanns, and

200 Princes, Grafs, and Barons,
1 Legat from Dalmatia, Croatia, and Sclavonia,
15 Members of the Royal Court of Justice,
2 Deputies of the kingdom of Croatia,
29 Legats of Chapters,
7 Abbots and Provosts,
98 Deputies from the 49 Comitats or Gespanschafts, (Provinces,)
189 Representatives of absent Magnats and their widows,
2 Delegates from the districts of Cumania and Jazyga,
2 Delegates of the six Haiduck towns,
80 Deputies of the 48 royal free towns.

696, Exclusive of the Palatine.

And these members are divided, by law, into four states or classes.

First, The High Catholic Clergy.

Second, The Reichs-Barons, Grafs, and Barons.

Third, The inferior Nobles, present by the representatives of the provinces.

Fourth, Royal free towns present by their representatives.

The diet, when met at the place appointed by the king, assembles itself as often as a sitting is declared in two separate chambers, that of the magnats and that of the representatives. To the former belong all archbishops, bishops, reichs barons, obergespanns, and all the counts and barons who attend in person. To the other belong all the deputies from counties, free towns, and chapters of the clergy, and the proxies of those magnats who are not able to be present in person. In the superior chamber the Palatine presides, or, if he be absent, the Reichs baron who comes next to him in dignity. In the lower cham-

ber, the representative of the king presides; he is a noble, and is likewise the president of the High Court of Justice, which sits during the assembly of the diet. The king is either present in person, or by his commissioners, at the city where the diet is held. It is in the Palace, and not in the Hall of Assembly, that the royal demands are communicated with great pomp to all the states collected around the throne; which, after being read in the full assembly of the diet, and in each chamber separately, are drawn out in the lower chamber, with the alterations which are proposed and determined upon. In all disputed points, the two chambers confer with each other by deputies, and decisions are made by the majority of the four states; each state voting according to the majority within itself. When at length any proposition has received the sanction of the states, it is laid before the king, who either assents to it, or, as frequently happens, disapproves. Upon his disapproval, very long negociations take place. The king makes his proposition, the states consider, modify, or reject, and often, after several months, the diet breaks up, and the point in question remains unsettled.

The king at his pleasure dissolves the diet, first forming into a decree whatever has been agreed upon. This passing through the chancery is distributed to be publicly read at the meeting of every comitatus, and then becomes law. The usual circumstance which gives rise to an assembly of the diet, is a demand or requisition made by the king for recruits or subsidies. This is proposed to the comitatus meetings, and at first is generally refused; after some consultation, however, it is at length most frequently granted, with such modifications as will shew that it is a favour and not a necessary concession. If the refusal be firm, the king must then propose his wishes to the diet, in which is lodged the full power of consulting on all subjects, with the

exception of two alone, namely, the right of hereditary succession in the Austrian house, and the right of the nobles to be exempt from all taxes,—subjects on which even the diet itself is not competent to make any regulations.

The probable gross revenue yielded by Hungary to the government is estimated by Schwartner, in 1811, at 40,000,000 florins, which, at his usual calculation, about 9 florins to the pound Sterling, would give L. 4,440,000, a sum which appears higher than he intended to make, and assuming 13 florins as nearer to the value of the pound in that year, we may admit L. 3,000,000 as the gross amount. This revenue is derived either from the lands of the crown, from royal privileges, or from contribution. The *crown lands* are of two kinds, such as are incapable of being alienated, and such as have fallen into the hands of government either by forfeiture or otherwise, and are freely at its disposal to be given as the reward of services. The produce of this branch of revenue is calculated at L. 133,000, not taking into account some estates which are the private property of the emperor.

The *regalia* are, *first*, salt, of which the average quantity for the ten years preceding 1802 amounted to 1,299,839 centners, which, according to the prices when I was in the country, would yield nearly 18,000,000 paper florins, or from L. 600,000 to L. 800,000; from which sum, however, the costs must be deducted.

2d, The coining and mines, which yielded in 1783 1,096,400 fl. about L. 120,000 of clear profit.

3d, The tolls upon goods entering Hungary, going out of it, or passing through it, under the denomination of the *Dreyssigstgefälle*, amounted, in 1807, to 1,455,195 fl. or about L. 100,000, after paying the expences of collecting.

4th, The sum paid in fines and penalties, the income of va-

cant bishopricks, &c. amounted, in 1811, to 306,434 fl. or about L. 20,000.

5th, The tax paid by the Jews for the privilege of living in Hungary has amounted, since 1806, to 120,000 fl. or about L. 10,000.

6th, The tax paid by the free towns amounted, in 1810, to 16,434 fl. and by the 16 Zips towns to 16,581 fl.; altogether about L. 3000.

7th, Five per cent. is taken from the salaries of certain pensions of office, which, however, is often dispensed with.

8th, The contributions of bishopricks and abbeys, towards repairing the fortresses, was in 1809—121,634 fl. or about L. 10,000.

9th, The post has been estimated at 500,000 fl. or L. 50,000.

10th, The produce of some other sources of revenue, as the Lottery, the *Monti di Pieta*, &c. is not known with any correctness.

The annual *contribution* levied upon Hungary since 1802 has been 5,000,000 fl. or L. 500,000 Sterling, including L. 10,000 paid by Croatia, and a small contribution from Fiume; besides which, the nobles appointed in 1807 a yearly sum of 200,000 fl. or about L. 20,000, to be given by themselves towards the expences of recruiting. This sum, however, varies according to the wants of the state, and is fixed at each reichstag, when likewise the proportion to be levied on each comitatus and free town is decreed; the proportions falling on individuals are assigned by the local magistrates under certain general regulations. The whole of Hungary, with this view, is divided into 6210 *porten*, on each of which has been levied of late years 782 fl.

The expence incurred by the peasants and the free citizens in maintaining the military, and in conveying them through the

country, together with the burden of providing *forespanns* and carrying government stores, is estimated at not less than 3,000,000 silver florins. It was amongst the improvements proposed by the Emperor Joseph to take off this uncertain tax, and to form a fund, to which he required 620,000 fl. as a regular yearly contribution from Hungary. On the death of that monarch, however, the nobles, jealous of every innovation, procured the repeal of this ordinance.

Every statement which has hitherto been published respecting the revenue of Hungary has been imperfect, and we can only hope to arrive at an approximation to the truth, which is rendered still more difficult, when we attempt to reduce the estimate of Austrian writers to our own money, as they frequently adopt a fluctuating paper medium as the basis of their calculations. But we find it stated by the best authorities, that about the year 1780 the revenue of Hungary and the Banat amounted to thirteen millions and a half silver florins, since which it is universally admitted, that, by the increase of population in the south, and the general improvement of the country, the revenue has been greatly augmented. We are likewise assured, that at least one-third of the whole Austrian revenue arises from Hungary; and taking all this into consideration, we shall not perhaps be venturing far beyond the limits of probability when we assume L. 3,000,000 as the annual return yielded by Hungary to the Austrian treasury.

In order to collect the revenue, and to regulate all matters connected with it, an office is established at Ofen termed the Hungarian *Hofkammer*, which is likewise connected with the office called the *Bergwesens*, for the administration of the mines, and these two are variously divided into inferior offices throughout the country; and after deducting the costs incurred in collecting the regalia, and paying the expences of the court

and the army, including all pensions and other outgoings, it is calculated that, in times of perfect peace, the overplus in this revenue amounts to somewhat more than 1,000,000 fl. In time of war the deficiency is considerable, which the nobles often attempt to diminish by large voluntary contributions.

The military strength of Hungary may be divided into three separate heads; the nobles, called together by insurrection; the standing army, kept up by recruiting and by conscription, and the military frontiers, where every man holds his possessions on condition of being ready at all times to take up arms.

The insurrection of the nobles takes place whenever the king requires; that which was called in 1800 consisted of 10,778 cavalry, 26,606 infantry from Hungary, from Croatia 6416; altogether, not less than 43,800. In the year 1808, without reckoning Croatia or Sclavonia, Hungary alone gave 17,214 cavalry, 21,230 infantry; besides which, from the free towns and privileged districts, 4000 cavalry, 41,000 infantry, and 1952 riflemen came forward as volunteers.

The standing force of Hungary consists of twelve infantry and ten hussar regiments. In time of peace, an infantry regiment consists of 3857, and an hussar regiment 1698; therefore the whole strength is 63,000. In time of war they are increased. The oldest of the hussar regiments was instituted in 1688, and of the foot 1734. These regiments are partly kept up by means of levies decreed by the king, with consent of the nobles; on which occasions the quotum to be supplied is portioned out to each comitatus, and an order being sent to any village or estate, to find a certain number of men, the individuals are fixed upon either by the proprietors of estates, or by the *dorfrichter*. Recruiting parties also attend the fairs and other places of resort and thus collect soldiers, and, in some cases, the great landed proprietors come forward to furnish a

certain number of men at their own expence from amongst their peasantry.

The pay of the soldiers is raised from the taxes paid by the citizens and peasants, and they are generally quartered upon the inhabitants, who are obliged to find them provisions and necessaries, at a rate established according to a very antiquated valuation, of course quite inadequate to the present prices of commodities.

The affairs and regulations of the army are directed by a military court at Ofen, which acts in concert with the Statthaltery.

CHAPTER VIII.

Vösendorf.—Laxenburg.—The Ritter Schloss.—Baaden.—Schönau.—Gardens of Baron Brown.—Cotton Manufacture.—Œdenburg.—Eisenstadt.—Neusiedler-See.—Nagy Barom.—Croatians.—Güns.—Stein-am-Anger.—Ovid's Tomb.—Szalaber.—Keszthely.—Georgicon.—Agricultural Societies and Institutions.—Cultivation of Fruit Trees.—Keszi.—Hill of Csobantz.—Sheep Farm.—Improvers of Sheep.—Vineyards.—Their Effects on the Peasantry.—Mineralogy of the Hill Badacson.—Rich Wines.—Szigliget.—Geological Remarks.—The Vineyard of Sz. Gyorgy Hegy.

Recent events, in the south of France, having deranged the plan which I had formed of returning to England by the way of Venice, Milan, and Paris, I availed myself of the delay to revisit Hungary, and gratify my curiosity by obtaining some further

knowledge of a country which had already so much interested me. Having joined a gentleman who proposed an excursion in that direction, early in April 1815 we left Vienna. The road from Vienna to Laxenburg is lined on each side by rows of horse-chesnut trees, which were coming into full leaf. The country is flat, moderately cultivated, and interspersed with villages. In the distance to the right are mountains, on whose first declivities the inhabitants of Vienna have formed pleasure-gardens, whither they resort in the long afternoons of summer. Farther off the broken summits of the Styrian Alps, and, above the rest, the lofty Schneeberg, were already visible, and their snowy tops rose in beautiful contrast with the green plain of springing corn over which we were passing.

About eight English miles from Vienna, by leaving the road a little to the left, we arrived at the village of Vösendorf. The Emperor of Austria has here established a school of agriculture. Before the war, lectures were given to twelve or fourteen pupils on agriculture, surveying, mechanics, and botany. But the students were, at this time, reduced to four; agriculture was the only subject upon which lectures were read, and the practice taught on lands appropriated to that object.

The house devoted to the institution was formerly a private residence, and now accommodates the professors and different officers, both of the school and the estate. Much attention has been paid to the systematic rotation of crops; but, at present, the objects chiefly worthy of observation are the breed of cattle and their management. The cattle are the genuine Swiss breed, from the canton of Schweitz, and from this stock many young bulls are annually purchased by landed proprietors in Austria and Hungary, bull-calves often selling for thirty pounds Sterling.

The stalls are well constructed, with wide passages in the middle and on each side, paved with bricks, extending the whole length of the buildings. Water is conducted by pipes into all the mangers, and when the cattle have drunk sufficiently, it is suffered to flow off over the floor. The stalls being thus cleansed, the water, charged with manure, is received in reservoirs, and employed in the irrigation of the land. The cows are fed in the house throughout the year, but suffered, during the summer, to enjoy the fresh air in an adjoining paddock, for some hours daily. Their milk is every morning sent to Vienna.

Having seen the little which the war had permitted to remain of this valuable establishment, we proceeded to Laxenburg. In this small village there is a palace belonging to the Emperor, which is his favourite summer residence. A large garden and wood are laid out in what is called the English taste; there are, however, whole colonies of hermits, not to mention the villages of fishermen, the mosques of Turks, and the temples of heathen goddesses; but the traveller's attention is chiefly called to a building named the *Ritter Schloss*, or Knight's Castle. This may with propriety be styled an imperial toy, and bears the same relation to an infant emperor which a painted cupboard, well peopled with dolls, bears to an infant subject. It is a little building provided with numerous turrets and watch-towers, loop-holes, iron-grates, and portcullises; and that the castle may never be without a guard, even when every man capable of bearing arms is called into the field, the sentinel is painted with all his armour in lively colours upon the gate. Within the court-yard is, of course, that necessary appendage a draw-well; and nothing is wanting in miniature, either in the audience-chamber, the banqueting-hall, the sleeping apart-

ments, the chamber of justice, the chapel, or the dungeon. The treasury chamber of Vienna has been put under contribution to supply the *Ritter Schloss* with valuables for the strong room; the gallery of the Belvedere has furnished its armoury; and old churches and cloisters have resigned their relics to adorn its altars. By a dark passage we reached the dungeon. Here sat a figure motionless upon a stone step; it was a knight templar, doomed to perpetual exclusion from the light of day. He raised his arm, but he could do no more; it fell unnerved upon his knee. A second time he attempted, and a third, but in vain; and we left him to all the cruelties which his merciless persecutor could heap upon him. Escaping from these mimic horrors, we returned with pleasure to the garden, and, crossing the water by which the castle is surrounded, came to the arena devoted to the celebration of tournaments; an oblong space, around which is raised a gravelled terrace with railing, and at one extremity is the royal lodge. It is about fifteen years since all this was completed. The emperor frequently visits it, and three years ago the last tournament was held.

Satisfied with what we had seen, we returned to the inn, and, although it was growing late, determined to set off at once for Baaden. We passed over another part of the same plain which we had crossed on our road to Laxenburg, and arrived at Baaden late in the evening.

Baaden, which is situated at the foot of the mountains, is much frequented by the Austrian nobility, and particularly by the higher classes of Vienna, as a place of summer resort. The baths are well constructed, and the water is much celebrated for its medicinal virtues. It evolves a great quantity of sulphuretted hydrogen gas, and no doubt contributes, with air, exercise, and the society of the place, to render abstraction

from serious occupation still more efficacious in fitting those who visit it to bear the gaiety and confinement of the winter in the metropolis. In the town itself there is nothing very striking, but the surrounding country possesses every requisite to make it a delightful residence for a few summer weeks. The greatest beauty of scenery is found in the valley called the *Helenathale*, which runs far into the mountains, surrounded on all sides by wooded banks, broken with rocks, whose summits are adorned by ruined castles. Three of these memorials of feudal power are particularly conspicuous near the entrance of the valley—the castles of Raucheneck and of Scharfeneck on the south, and that of Rauchenstein on the north.

The histories of the first and last of these are plainly to be traced in the deeds of their respective possessors, to the early part of the twelfth century; Scharfeneck is not, however, distinctly mentioned until the year 1440. But they have all long ceased to be the objects of dread to the surrounding country. The steep ascents towards their rocky foundations have been smoothed by the gentle windings of a grassy terrace, and their massive bastions have been converted into resting-places for the weary invalid, or the musing philosopher. The rivulet which winds through this valley becomes, at certain seasons, a foaming mountain torrent; at this time, however, it had tranquilly subsided within its pebbly banks, and was crossed by a wooden bridge, the simplicity of which displeased the fastidious visitors, and led to the attempt of substituting iron, and the consequent failure which I have mentioned in the second chapter of this volume.

The imperial family have always shewn peculiar interest in the town of Baaden, and some of its members generally reside there during the summer. Under the emperor's particular patronage, a charitable institution, first founded by a

lady of distinction above fifty years ago, has attained considerable extent. Its object is to enable the poor to derive the benefit of the baths, and with this view, a hospital is founded in the town, whose funds have sometimes been sufficient to support between 200 and 300 patients yearly; its resources have for the present suffered some depression, but the benevolence of its patron remains unchanged.

When we had satisfied ourselves with the beauties of Baaden, we returned towards Laxenburg by a circuitous route, in order to visit the residence of Baron Brown at Schönau, of which we had heard much. On our road we stopped for a short time at the farm of a nobleman who has paid great attention to the breed of sheep, and had an opportunity of seeing a very fine flock of improved fleeces. At Schönau we found a modern built cotton-spinning factory, where much of the English machinery is introduced; and the proprietor has provided for the education of the children who come, either with or without their parents, to be employed in the manufactory, by a schoolmaster residing on the spot, whom they are obliged to attend at certain hours. In the gardens we were rather disappointed, and several artificial embellishments seemed to result from a similar taste, to that which had taught the artist of Laxenburg to depict a sentinel upon the gate of the Ritter Schloss.

A small lake of water affords an opportunity for introducing a colony of beavers, and at no great distance a large fishing hut is provided with all the necessaries, which the hardy inhabitants could require. The cottage of a cooper is surrounded by unfinished casks; on opening the door, the industrious housewife is seen seated at the table, and while her spouse, crouched in a large barrel, pursues his occupation, the apprentice presses his amorous suit. The cooper looks with suspi-

cious eye from his retreat, and then, rising in anger, threatens vengeance. In another place Diogenes, by the side of his humble dwelling, seeks an honest man. Here an island is dedicated to love; and there a monument erected to departed worth. While we were taken to each of these in succession, the gardener was preparing the grand *finale*, which, in spite of the strong tincture of childishness which pervaded the whole, was a pleasing exhibition. We were conducted to a large artificial rock, and entered a dark cavern by the light of torches. The circuitous passage which we followed was supposed to represent the path of life,—now rising in steep ascents, —now descending in rapid declivities,—now leading by even and unbroken paths,—at one time the way impeded with rocks, at another lost in mazy windings. Quotations, suggested by the shade, or the light, the slope, or the hill, were inscribed on the rocky sides, and, at irregular intervals, the whole was hung with lamps. At length we came to the closing scene,— it was a temple adorned with statues, covered by an expanded dome, where stars were seen, and the light which the moon shed upon all the objects was so excellently contrived, that the deception was complete. As we stood in silent admiration, melodious music suddenly burst upon the ear. It was for a moment like enchantment, but all sweet illusions quickly pass, and we were too soon compelled to return to the displeasing brightness of reality.

Leaving Schönau, we passed through other manufacturing villages, and, at Laxenburg, I parted with my friend; nor was it till new scenes, and the necessity of exertion, roused me, that I was reconciled to the loss of so pleasant a companion. The country was flat, sometimes barren, sometimes marshy, but never interesting. I soon arrived at the village of Ebreichsdorf, where some large cotton-spinning fac-

tories are established, and a large quantity of cotton goods was bleaching in the fields.

Being now in the very centre of the cotton manufactures of Austria, it would be unpardonable were I to deprive my reader of all information on that important subject, merely because I was unable to prosecute minute inquiries on the spot; I shall therefore give such details as I have since collected from various sources, but upon which dependence may be placed. Bisinger, in his Statistics of the Austrian Empire, published in 1807, says of these manufactures, that for their number, and for the excellence, extent, and variety of wares which they produce, they undoubtedly claim for themselves the first rank in Europe, after those of England and Saxony. (He might perhaps have added France.) The greater number, and amongst those the oldest, were in the archduchy of Austria Proper. In this province there were 33 manufactories, which made the different kinds of cotton fabrics,—muslin, quilting, barragon, and all the varieties of light and heavy goods. Besides these, there were four cotton-mills with English machinery, and seven printing-houses. Bohemia and Moravia come next to this province in manufacturing importance. At Burgau in Styria, in addition to the other branches of the manufacture, a cotton-mill was established, and Bisinger calculated the total number of hands employed at about 360,000. This estimate seems enormous, and, since it was made, some years of rapid improvement have elapsed; but, considering the extent of the provinces included, and that spinning by hand, together with every branch of the trade is spoken of, and having myself witnessed the industry and enterprise which pervades it, I am not inclined to question his accuracy. The extent of the cotton manufactories in the province of Austria *under the Enns*, in the year 1811, may be judged of by the following brief facts.

Spinning manufactories, after the English mode, were established at Schönau, Solenau, Desorf, Steinhof, Fischament, Liesing, Schwadorf, Neunkirchen, Pottendorf, and there were 15 manufactories at Vienna. The Pottendorf manufactory alone employed 21 directors, 16 overseers, 1133 male, 1356 female labourers. In 1813, I find that similar establishments had grown up at Brunn-am-Gebirg, Wahring, Margarethau, and Hernals. *Manufactures of cotton piece goods, of all kinds*, existed at Fischament, Sechshaus, Penzing, Mödling, Egenburg, Taxen, eight in Vienna, besides small manufactories in the suburbs and in other places, making the whole amount to 5140 work people, and 5049 looms. I can add, too, on the best authority, that, in 1816, these looms had increased to between 8000 and 10,000 in the suburbs of Vienna alone. *Cotton and linen printing works* at Gundramsdorf, Haimberg, and Stattersdorf, which employed 29 printing tables. *Cotton piece printing-houses* of every kind in Sechshaus, Brechtoldsdorf, Inzersdorf, Ebreichsdorf, Haimberg, Kettenhof, Schwöchat, Erla, Steinabruchel, Neunkirchen, Mödling, St Polten, Friedau, and five in Vienna, employing altogether 6163 people, 469 printing tables, and 1160 looms. The chief establishment was that of Ebreichsdorf, with 24 directors, 130 overseers, 592 male, 2052 female labourers, 75 printing tables, and 410 looms. *Cotton piece embroidery* was carried on in six manufactories in Vienna, and there were ten small *manufactories of machines* for cotton spinning, chiefly at Vienna, Bruck, and Hirtenberg. For a more detailed description of some of these establishments, I am indebted principally to an intelligent German, who saw them in 1809 and 1811, between which periods and the time of my visit to that country, a temporary check had been sustained from the depreciated and

uncertain state of the currency; but the machinery, and the mode of conducting the whole, remained unimpaired.

At Kettenhof, near Schwöchat, on the road between Vienna and Haimburg, which I passed soon after I left Vienna on my first tour, is one of the oldest cotton manufactories in Austria. It had, in 1809, been flourishing for about 20 years under its present conductor, Baron Fries, and is equally remarkable for its external appearance, and for the regularity with which all the different processes are performed. It then employed, in the manufactory itself, about 1100 persons, and gave work to nearly 14,000 other individuals as spinners and weavers, of whom the greater part were in Bohemia, and some in the district called *Waldviertel;* and with a view to these distant labourers, factories were established at different places, of which the farthest was Kulm.

A great part of the yarn was prepared in the spinning machines of Schwadorf, the proprietor of which was also largely interested in the manufactory at Kettenhoff. Their twist, although it had attained a high degree of fineness and of strength, could not be used altogether instead of the English. They pretended, that it was by the strong and continued pressure to which this last is exposed during the transport, that it obtained the gloss and strength, which was the foundation of the preference it received,—a reason which, fortunately for the future prosperity of the Schwadorf manufactory, was certainly not the true one; this will probably be found in the quality of the raw cotton employed, and is a cause which peace and a free intercourse will every day tend to remove.

In bleaching the goods, the chemical method of Berthollet, in closed chambers, was pursued and carried to such an extent, that 500 or 600 pieces were daily bleached. The bowking was effected by means of steam. The ley, heated in a close vessel,

was forced, by the pressure of its own steam, into a pipe, and poured itself upon a vat filled with 1200 pieces, passing, after having completely wetted them, again into the vessel, under which a constant fire was kept up.

This manufactory had 135 printing tables, and great pains were taken in furnishing a variety of patterns. The book in which they were kept already contained above 7000. In the preceding year, the English method of printing, by means of rollers, had been introduced, which was the first attempt, on a large scale, in the Austrian dominions. The whole produce of this manufactory amounted to between 60,000 and 80,000 pieces yearly, and the home consumption afforded a constant and ready market. At Fischament was another manufacturing establishment, chiefly for velveteens. The twist was obtained from Schwadorf, and much of it was woven in the looms of Bohemia, Moravia, and Upper Austria. Here likewise the bowking was performed by steam. The vessel was much larger than at Kettenhoff, and filled two chambers, one on each side, with the ley.

Their mode of dressing cotton velvet is well worthy of notice. They have for this purpose machines, turned by water, which work with sets of brush-combs; the whole piece is laid under these, and passes gradually on until the operation is complete. It then disengages itself, and the machine ceases to move.

The Ebreichsdorf manufactory rivalled that of Kettenhoff in machinery, and surpassed it in the number of hands and extent of building. The greater part of the spinners and weavers were spread through Bohemia and Moravia. The whole number of workmen exceeded 20,000. Spinning machines were made upon the spot by an Englishman of the name of

Mitchell, for spinning the finer numbers from 24 to 80, which is nearly the highest required, the hand-spinning seldom going beyond 16. Twenty-eight machines, for fine spinning, with all the necessary apparatus, were nearly completed. Some water-twist machines were also in use, in the mechanism of which they had, as yet, been less successful than in those for mule-twist.

In imitation of the works at Kettenhoff were here also established a set of printing rollers. Much care being taken to economise wood fuel, the steam arising from the dyeing vessels was made to pass through pipes to heat the room in which the pieces were dried.

The manufactory then prided itself upon being the only one in Austria which possessed the art of dyeing the English blue; for which purpose, four Indigo vats were prepared, into which the pieces stretched upon frames were several times plunged. Every process was here under the direction of its peculiar workmen, and not less than 26,000 pieces were at one time in readiness for bleaching. The sale was confined to home consumption, and particularly to supply the demand from Hungary. At Mödling, what is called the Swiss manufactory was carried on, where muslins and other cotton articles were made. From the seventy looms which were formerly in activity at this place, the number was now reduced to forty, of which ten or twelve only were in the building, the rest were distributed in the houses of the work people. This decline (in 1811) was ascribed to the want of English twist, which was indispensable for the finer goods. The yarn was then obtained from the spinning works at Desorf, which are now rapidly extending, but at that time were not sufficient to supply the demand.

The cotton-mill at Pottendorf, which was first instituted by the exertions of Prince Schwartzenburg, in 1802, had raised itself to a high degree of perfection, and was under the direction of an Englishman of the name of Thornton. In this work the moving power is water, and is excellently applied. The canal, of about half a mile in length, cut from the river Leitha, falls on the wheel which moves the mule-twist machine, from a height of twenty feet; a branch of it to the right being directed on that for water-twist.

There are two buildings of five stories in height, for the mule-spinning, and one of two stories for water-twist. The first contain 128 mules, the latter 60. They then manufactured about 6800 lbs. of yarn weekly. In 1812 the quantity was increased to nearly 12,000 lbs. In 1816, two English overlookers superintended. They were the last of sixteen, all of whom were engaged at one time, to furnish their knowledge and experience for the benefit of this establishment. Intemperance was, I have understood, the chief cause of the rapid diminution of their numbers; their high salaries gave strength to temptation, and as they imparted their skill, they gradually became less capable, as well as less necessary.

The cotton having been freed from its greatest impurities by working it with the hand, is passed through machines for carding and drawing, and then comes to the machines which are either preparatory, or for spinning. In the former 90 threads are roved at once, in the latter 180 spun, the whole being completed by means of rollers and spindles, the velocity and pressure of which may be regulated with ease. A cleaning machine, named a devil or tearer, was used, in order to render the waste materials serviceable, which passing between two rollers, moved with great velocity, and provided with iron teeth, was cleared of its impurities, the lighter and clean wool flying out, while

the foreign particles fell to the ground. The cops, as they came from the fine spinning machines, were carried to the warehouse, from which they were given out to be put on the reels, where twelve or fourteen cops were wound at a time, each Austrian hank containing 3645 feet three inches, while the English contains but 2402 feet four inches Vienna measure. The hanks were sorted in packages of five or ten pounds English weight, according to the numbers.

The whole building was very well supplied with water by pipes to secure it against fire. All parts of the machinery were prepared on the spot, in workshops erected for smiths, carpenters, and other artisans, and a saw-mill was worked by the same water which put the other machinery in motion. There were also houses for the officers, regularly built streets for the workmen, and a school for fifty-six children employed in the manufactory, who were clothed, fed, and instructed at the expence of the proprietor. In 1816, the number of children was much increased, and more ample means of instruction provided. The wages were then for women equal to six, and for men nine shillings per week.

The manufacture of Desdorf, conducted by a Frenchman of the name of Hernaitte, was not quite on so large a scale, but was remarkable for its neatness and compact structure. The machinery was well arranged, and in several cases highly improved. A building of four stories was already completed, and the foundation of a second laid. The connection of the machines was so contrived, that, although all were put in motion by one power, yet any single one might be stopped without impeding the rest. There were 24 mule and 12 water-twist machines in constant work, and the demand for twist always far exceeded their product.

Without proceeding farther in these details, we here see

enough to be convinced that a great part of our modern improvements in the cotton manufactures have been long since, at least partially, adopted in Austria. Little doubt can be entertained that the attention which is now given to the subject will lead to greater improvements, and the proximity of coal, which is already worked in some places, as Schauerleiten and Klingenfurt in this district, renders it extremely probable that the steam-engine will be speedily and extensively introduced. This once brought into use, becomes, by the power it affords of draining and lifting, the most efficient instrument possible in providing coal for its own consumption, and rendering it universally plentiful and cheap.

The principle of forcing manufactures by bounties and monopolies prevails in Austria, and is unfortunately extending in most countries, while its effects are more than questionable, both in a political and moral view; it interferes with the natural and most advantageous direction of labour; it aggrandizes a particular class, at the expence of the community, both in the cost of the manufactured goods consumed, and in the export of their produce, in return for foreign commodities; and it engenders a commercial and rancorous animosity between civilized nations, whose real interests would lead to the interchange of their separate superfluities, and link them in the bonds of peace. After a long continuance of this false system, even the governments feel its effects, and are almost equally embarrassed, whether they attempt to tread back their steps, or to proceed in the same career.

In an extended view, the natural progress of each separate country in the arts of civil life, tends necessarily to the benefit of all; and when Hungary ceases to be our customer for the necessaries which our cotton-mills now supply, her national wealth will augment her population, and add to her

artificial wants, and demands upon English skill will arise in some other direction to improve our intercourse, and increase our mutual prosperity.

As we proceeded on our journey, we met another carriage drawn by post-horses, and, according to the universal custom, an exchange of cattle took place. This is a habit arising from the single post-houses at each station, and is obviously advantageous to the postmaster, without putting the traveller to any inconvenience; the delay required being but a few moments, while the drivers are untying and tying the loose knots by which the rope-traces are attached to the carriage. We presently arrived at the boundary between Austria and Hungary. There it was necessary to produce my passport, in order to have it registered. Officers then inquired whether we had with us any contraband goods, any thing new, or any silver, and particularly whether the carriage was new; for all things entering, as well as all things leaving Hungary, must contribute to the Austrian treasury. It was not long before we arrived at Vimpaszing, the next post station. The country became less uniform, and the road good, and planted with avenues of young horse-chesnut trees, already capable of affording an agreeable shelter; on each side were large extents of land in cultivation, villages pleasantly situated amidst orchards, and fruit trees now in blossom. Such was the country which brought us to Nagy Hoflein, where, having obtained fresh horses, the evening began to close, and it was past ten when we arrived at Œdenburg.

The inn at which we stopped was not within the walls of the town, but in an open street of low houses, which surrounds a considerable part of it. During my short stay the following morning, I merely walked about to view the external appearance of this place. Within the walls, the streets are narrow and

the houses old,—the entrance gates by no means striking. There are several churches, much adorned within with gilding and relics. This town was the Sopronium of the Romans, and contains, at present, 12,000 inhabitants. It is rather celebrated in Hungary for its manufacture of fine cloth, which, however, is very limited in its extent. There is likewise a glass manufactory, a sugar-refinery, and a work for preparing potash; but the circumstance from which Œdenburg derives its chief importance, is its convenient situation as a market for the produce of Hungary, and as an intermediate station from which it can be exported into Austria. The market, both of corn and cattle, is here very much frequented, and the number of swine yearly sold is greater than in any other place. These are not all of the Hungarian breed; most of them are brought from the confines of Turkey, of which alone the yearly sale at Œdenburg has amounted to 80,000 head.

This town is the capital of the Comitatus, the reputation of which stands high on account of its wines; and as the Comitatus is flat towards the east, and intersected by three ranges of mountains, it affords a great variety of soil, and yields much rye and wheat, with fruits in great profusion; besides which, coal and lime are amongst its most valuable natural treasures.

The picture which Bredetzky has drawn of the inhabitants of the town is not very favourable. It is a mixed population of Hungarians and Germans, and this author appears to entertain some little doubt as to the sobriety of the ladies. He says, that "the young ladies of Œdenburg have but little pleasure in the beauties of nature;" and that "he has never seen a place where the fair sex took less delight in the care of their gardens, or the cultivation of flowers. Instead of this, they keep themselves very much at home, and are best pleased when oc-

cupied, as is the case in almost all the citizens' houses, in the retail or distribution of wine. That such a habit," he says, "can do little towards the cultivation of their hearts or understanding, will be obvious to every one who knows what kind of subjects are generally brought forwards during the drinking of wine, and how easily the bounds of propriety and of politeness are passed over, when wine begins to spread its influence. Whoever, therefore, wishes to educate his children with more care, suffers them to take as little share as possible in the distribution of this beverage.

"The morals of the young men are, upon the whole, better than is usually the case in towns of this kind. Their mode of life is quiet and dull; there is no place of amusement, no place of public assembly, except some walks about the town. Most families live entirely for themselves, or, at farthest, for their immediate relations. Societies for learning, for friendship, or for amusement, are here altogether unknown. Hence, there is no cordiality, no public spirit, no harmony amongst the inhabitants, but quarrelling, scandal, and jealousy, throw obstacles in the way of all undertakings for the common good. Selfishness reigns over the rich and the poor, the small and the great, and overwhelms the welfare and prosperity of a town, which, from its excellent situation, might vie with the most important towns of the empire.

"The Germans, however," the same author observes, "who live in the country in this Comitatus, are, in general, better than those of the capital; they pursue their business, and keep within their own sphere; and even in the town we sometimes meet with remnants of the old German uprightness and good faith."

On leaving Œdenburg, we passed over a pleasantly varied country,—the hills covered with vineyards and woods, and the

road planted on both sides with avenues of cherry and horse-chesnut trees. From an elevation we looked back upon Œdenburg, which appears a large and important town, and, at a short distance, the Neusiedler-See extends itself to the east. Almost the whole of the beautiful country which surrounded us, belongs to Fürst (Prince) Esterhazy, whose favourite mansion is at Eisenstadt, in this neighbourhood, where he occasionally resides, living in princely splendour. The possessions of this nobleman are far more extensive than those of any other in Hungary, and his mode of life corresponds with the ideas of outward state which we naturally attach to his high rank.

His possessions about the Neusiedler-See, and particularly at Eisenstadt, were first granted to the family by Ferdinand II. in 1622, for the services rendered to that monarch by Graf Nicolaus Esterhazy, palatine of Hungary, which were greatly instrumental in securing his family on the throne. The palace, built in 1683 by the Fürst Paul Esterhazy of Galantha, palatine of Hungary, has lately undergone great alterations and repairs, and the front has been ornamented with turrets and Corinthian pillars. This looks towards the Schlossplatz, where the markets are held, and public business transacted; and around the palace, in different directions, the public offices, for transacting the business of the prince's estates, are placed. The garden, however, which the other front of the palace faces, is one of its greatest ornaments, and is celebrated amongst the finest in the Austrian dominions. It is thus described by a German who visited it in the year 1816.

"The garden of the palace, which, in the year 1754, was laid out in the French taste, was enlarged in 1801, at which time they commenced the work of transforming it into an English garden, which is not yet completed. This improvement was first suggested by the Prince's architect, Mureau. Besides

the great canal, which forms various cascades as it winds through the gardens, and many other pieces of water, beautiful islands, rich lawns, shady walks, and a choice collection of trees, many of which are foreign, the most interesting objects are the hot-houses and the steam-engine. The former of these are, on account of the rare plants they contain, perhaps unrivalled in the Austrian monarchy. They consist of eight large houses, which were built at the time the new garden was laid out. The first house, constructed in two divisions, is entirely devoted to plants from the tropical climates. The second is filled with those from New Holland and the Cape. The third house is an orangery, divided in the middle by a lofty saloon, ornamented with statues and mirrors. The orange trees comprise all the varieties of that genus, and amount to nearly three hundred. The fourth house contains only the smaller plants of New Holland and the Cape. The fifth house is divided into two parts, one appropriated to the *Pelargonia*, and the other to succulent plants. The sixth house is for the pines, consisting of four divisions, each occupied by crops coming forward in succession, and each treated separately. The number cut yearly is about four hundred. The back part of the whole of this house is filled with such exotics as are suited to the temperature required for the pine; and the front is occupied as a nursery for cuttings and young plants. In the seventh house, which has also four divisions, flowers, fruits, and other vegetable products, are cultivated; and, lastly, the eighth house is formed of a line of terraces, consisting of five large divisions, and set apart entirely for forcing fruit. These houses, containing above 60,000 plants, are under the management of a native of Raab, the head gardener."

The steam-engine has nothing peculiar in its construction; it was purchased in London by Fürst Nicholaus Esterhazy,

and, in 1803, brought to Eisenstadt, being the first on the modern improved principle which had been seen in Austria. The condenser is three and a half feet in diameter, and it is employed in raising water to a reservoir on an elevation, from which the hot-houses and gardens are supplied. Amongst the many appendages to the princely state maintained at Eisenstadt must be mentioned the caserne for the grenadier guard, which consists of four officers, with subalterns, and 150 men. They mount guard at the residence, and, since 1800, have been permitted by the Emperor to bear a peculiar standard. At no great distance from the palace, on the road towards Pressburg, is the park, containing 2300 joch of land, surrounded by a wall, and intersected by twenty-five alleys of trees. The deer amount to 950 head, and the wild boars to 150, which, however, are confined within a certain limit. On the outside of the park is a large preserve for game; which, besides many conveniences for hunting and ensnaring game, contains two pheasant preserves with their proper accompaniments. Four thousand hares, and several thousand pheasants and partridges, are annually killed.

The *Neusiedler-see*, a lake of about ten German miles in circumference, is too shallow to admit of navigation. Its shores are flat and marshy, overgrown with reeds, and frequented by wild fowl. The flat ground, towards the east, is of great extent, but on the west, a ridge of limestone hills forms an amphitheatre, the sides of which are covered with vineyards, and the summits with wood. The water, which is generally clear, becomes turbid when agitated by wind, and is liable to considerable variations in height in long continued rains or dry weather. The great peculiarity in the water is its saltness, which is easily ascertained by the taste, and renders it unfit to be used, except as a medicine, by the neighbouring inhabitants; cattle, how-

ever, are very fond of it, and the peasantry collect the salt, which sometimes crystallizes on the shores, for their flocks and herds. Dr Kis, in a valuable Hungarian MS. on the natural history of this lake, states, as the result of his own researches, and those of an able chemist of the name of Steigenberger, on the salt collected by evaporating the water, that 100 parts contain about 77 of sulphat of soda, 8 of muriate of soda, and 15 of the soda uncombined.

Many superstitious traditions are connected with this lake, as of its ebbing and flowing in alternate periods of seven years; of its connection, by a subterraneous passage, with the Danube; and some others, amongst which is a tradition, that its banks gave birth to a wild boy. I shall not enter minutely into the marvellous detail. Two fishermen, one of whom was living so recently as 1797, are said to have discovered him about fifty years before. After nearly a year's attempt to domesticate this monster, he made his escape, and has never been heard of since. The description given of him in a formal declaration made at the Court of Kapuvar, August 8, 1803, will be found in German in the Appendix.

As we pursued our journey, we passed two or three villages, in which we observed many soldiers who were quartered on the inhabitants; and from the railing of almost every little garden, a piece of board with two wooden hammers was suspended, and employed as a drum to give the peasants notice to provide, at the appointed hour, provender and water for the soldiers' horses. When we came to the small town of Nekenmark, we were informed that a little to the west lay Ritzeng, where Fürst Esterhazy has been working coal, and near to this is the Œdenburg coal-work of Brennbergh. We, however, proceeded towards Nagy Barom, through a road diversified by extensive orchards and vineyards, intermixed with peach trees.

Nagy Barom, which is the first post-house after leaving Œdenburg, is a village of Croats, where, at a large country inn, we procured cold meat and sour wine. The inhabitants of this place speak both Croatian and an imperfect German, and form a part of that family which are denominated the *Wasser-croaten*, (probably from partially inhabiting the marshy banks of the Neusiedler-see,) and which form one-eighth of the population of this *comitatus*, the rest consisting of about four-eighths Hungarians, and three-eighths Germans. These Croats all profess the Catholic religion; they are a robust tribe, and willingly undergo the severest labour of the week, if they may indulge themselves in dancing on the Sunday. Their dance is a mixture of the Hungarian and German, and, though rude and awkward, affords them infinite delight. The young women, who are frequently very pretty, wear a number of short petticoats heaped one over the other, and stiff bodices. The number of the petticoats is in proportion to their wealth; the richer a damsel is, the more petticoats she wears at the Sunday dance; and, to add to the respectability of appearance as much as possible, this mass of clothes is lined and stuffed, till the size becomes enormous.

Between this place and Güns the country is pleasing; the road often leads through small and neglected forests; to the west the horizon is elevated, but to the east the country is flat, and broken only by one or two insulated basaltic mountains, of which the principal are the mountains of Ság and Schomlau, both yielding good wine.

Güns is a considerable town, partly built on the side of a rising ground, and surrounded by a wall; it contains, with its suburbs, about 4000 inhabitants, who are chiefly Germans, but often employ the Hungarian language, and the German which they speak is a peculiar dialect, called the *Hienzen* dia-

lect, spoken also through the western part of the Eisenburg Comitatus. The inhabitants of this town employ themselves very much in agricultural labour. We here found a number of Italian troops in quarters, whom the Austrians were said to have withdrawn from their own country, under an apprehension that their national feeling might lead them to side with Murat in the war then commencing.

From Güns to Stein-am-Anger the road is quite flat, and the country fertile; to the east the horizon is unbounded, but to the west some hills diversify the view. In the middle of the road, we changed horses with a carriage which we met, and our new postillion said it would be impossible to proceed farther that night than Stein-am-Anger, as the road was much infested with robbers,—an assertion ready upon every convenient occasion in Hungary. He promised to conduct us to the best inn, and to be at our service in the morning. With these fair promises, he drove into an inn-yard; and whilst I was up stairs looking at the rooms, quickly took off the horses and made good his retreat. I found the accommodation so bad that I could not remain; one little room was to receive myself and my servant, but on descending, no means were left of effecting an escape. It happened, however, fortunately, that a travelling troop of performers of feats of horsemanship, or, as they are here called, *English riders*, had put up at the same inn; and a groom was presently bribed to harness one of their large horses, and draw the carriage to another house, where I promised myself more comfort.

Stein-am-Anger, whose site is pretty well identified with that of the Roman Sabaria, is situated on a plain between two small rivers. It is in general poorly and irregularly built. In front of the cathedral, which is a modern building, is a handsome open space; on the right of this is the bishop's palace;

and beyond this, the house of assembly for conducting the business of the comitatus; on the left stands a large square house, occupied as a seminary, and chiefly devoted to the education of the clergy. This collection of public buildings, together with a few good private houses in the neighbourhood, forms a strong contrast to the rest of the town; and the whole derives respectability from the academic dress of the clerical students. The interior of the church is very handsome, supported by large pillars covered with stucco in imitation of marble. The architect, who built both the cathedral and the bishop's palace, was a Tyrolese of the name of Melchior Hefele. He constructed the interior of the cathedral of Raab, and died towards the close of the last century at Stein-am-Anger.

Respecting the antiquities of this town, Schoenvisner, the professor of numismatics and antiquities in the university of Pesth, a writer well known by his valuable works on the coins of Hungary, has published an elaborate treatise in quarto, in which he first endeavours to establish the fact, that the present Stein-am-Anger is the *Sabaria* of Pliny, Ptolemy, and others, and then proceeds to a description of the monuments still remaining of the ancient splendour of this city. He gives figures of thirty considerable sculptured stones, several of which I had an opportunity of seeing. One of the most striking which has been discovered, as a work of art, is the body of a colossal figure in white marble, supposed to be a Hercules. Another trunk is obviously a Minerva. The rest are fragments of columns, and sepulchral or other inscriptions, and two or three bas reliefs, which have suffered much from the hand of time. Roman coins have also been found in this place in large numbers. Many other monuments, which are known to have existed, have been lost or destroyed, amongst which was a fine tessellated pavement, seen by Schoenvisner in 1780, and, what

is far more interesting, some inscriptions said to have been discovered in the tomb of the unfortunate Ovid. The glory of having afforded a temporary asylum to this celebrated exile, and of having received within its walls his last breath, has been boldly claimed by the modern inhabitants of Sabaria. That they have failed in making good their claims, will probably be believed by the generality of my readers; but the whole evidence upon this interesting inquiry, as stated by the historian of the city, is too curious to be withheld.

"In the fourth year of the reign of Tiberius, and the seventeenth of the Christian era, Sabaria was, according to some authors, ennobled by the death and sepulture of that eminent poet *Publius Ovidius Naso*. But it may be proper to inquire how far this tradition is founded in truth; for Eusebius, in his Chronicle, states, that Ovid, in the year above mentioned, died in exile, and was buried at Tomi, a town of Mœsia inferior. George of Trebisond adds, that the Scythian inhabitants of Tomi erected, before the gate of the town, a magnificent tomb, at the expence of the community, in memory of Ovid. (*Apud Pontanum, lib. de Magnificentia, cap.* 14.) Have we then any documents of greater antiquity to invalidate their testimony? for it is related that the sepulchre and epitaph of Ovid were found at Stein-am-Anger, amongst the ruins of the ancient Sabaria. Wolfgangus Lazius, a physician of Vienna, who died in 1555, and Gaspar Bruschius, an historian contemporary with Lazius, were the first in whose writings this discovery was recorded. The following are the words of Lazius: "Relatum est mihi a fide digno sene, Frederici III. Cæsaris ætate, tumulum effossum cum ossibus, in cujus saxis P. Ovidii Nasonis nomina adscripta fuissent; eaque a Jaurinensi Episcopo, cujus illa diœcesis est, ablata esse. Ut credendum sit, exulem

Ovidium, posteaquam, impetrata gratia, e Ponto rediisset, Sabariæ rebus humanis ereptum esse et sepultum." (*Lib. xii. de Rep. Rom. sect. iii. c.* 6.) Bruschius says, "Sabaria civitas Hungariæ, hodie Stein-am-Anger, lingua Germanica dicta: ubi inventum est, Anno D. 1508, Publii Ovidii Nasonis sepulcrum ex testudine magnificum, in quo repertæ sunt lampades sex lapideæ, et duæ laminæ inscriptæ versibus: una cuprea altera aurea, quas Schleinicensis arcis Præfectus, Clemens dictus, emit. Testis Leonhardus Creuzerus Posonianus, Concionator S. Stephani Viennæ, qui tabulas vidit et versus legit, sed non retinuit." (*Bruschius de Laureaco veteri, p.* 31, *in margine.*) Such is the account given by these authors; but if the relation of Bruschius, who says that the sepulchre of Ovid was discovered at Sabaria in 1508, be admitted, it is obvious that Lazius is not correct, when he places the epoch of this discovery in the reign of Frederic III., as that monarch died in 1483.

Later writers have attached to the narrative of Bruschius the following epitaph:

FATUM NECESSITATIS LEX,
Hic situs est vates, quem divi Cæsaris ira
Augusti patria cedere jussit humo.
Sæpe miser voluit patriis occumbere terris,
Sed frustra: hunc illi fata dedere locum.

Bonbardus, in his *Topographia Regni Hungariæ*, Gabriel Szerdahely, in his *Chorographia celebrium Hungariæ Urbium*, Lloyd, in his *Dictionary*, and many others, quote Bruschius's authority for the discovery of this epitaph in the tomb of Ovid at Sabaria; but the lines in question are never mentioned by Bruschius, and they appear rather to have been copied from a monument in Poland. The first account of this monument may be found in Possevin's *Historia Fa-*

miliæ Gonzagarum, where we are told, that certain Poles who had travelled to the Euxine, discovered, in the ruins of an ancient city, a large stone bearing this inscription; that this stone was transported, by means of six oxen, into Poland; and that he had seen it at Gnesna, whence it would have been transported to Cracow, if the death of the King, Stephen Bathori, had not intervened. Sarnicius refers to the same inscription in the following words: "Vivus epitaphium sibi scripserat, et vir quidam e Russia spectatæ nobilitatis dixit, se reperisse lapidem quemdam in planicie quadam ad oppidum Asau, cui hoc carmen incisum fuit, quod venam Ovidii refert,"—and he then gives the verses, *(Lib. II. Annal. Polon. cap. iv.)* Others relate, that a monument, with these lines engraved upon it, was dug up in Bessarabia, a province of Moldavia, at the village of Isac, between Akierman, the Alba Julia of the Romans, and Kilia, formerly called Lycostomos, and that it was found near the lake called by the Moldavians *Lacul Ovidului*, or the lake of Ovid. On this account, there are some who suppose that Kilia was the ancient Tomi, which must be a mistake, for it plainly appears, from the early geographers, from the itinerary of Antoninus, and from the Elegies of Ovid himself, that Tomi could not have stood upon the site of Kilia, since Tomi was on the same side of the Danube with Italy, whereas Kilia and the whole of Bessarabia are on the opposite side. A reply is unnecessary to those who assert that the epitaph was found at Kiov in Russia, and confound the Kiov of Russia with the Kilia of Bessarabia—an error no less absurd than that which places Tomi in the Hungarian city of Temeswar, because the city of Tomi is now called in the Moldavian language Tomisvara.

What then, it will be asked, is to be our decision respecting the matter in dispute? Büsching, in his notes on the Mol-

davia of Demetrius Cantemir, suspects that the Moldavian monument is spurious, having been made by some Pole to impose upon the ignorant. Peter Bellorius, on the other hand, who was antiquary to Christina Queen of Sweden, thinks it genuine, for this cogent reason, that Possevin, who was an excellent judge of antiquities, had seen it without discovering any fraud. Samuel Timon likewise had no doubt of its being genuine, but believes that it was first placed at Tomi, and at some later period transported to Bessarabia. It may be well, however, to cite the words of this author, as they contain circumstances not mentioned by other writers, or stated by them in a different way. "Illud mirabile videtur, quod procedente tempore monumentum Ovidii latum sit trans omnia Istri ostia. Cum enim Stephanus Rex Poloniæ, circa annum 1572, in Podolia consisteret, nonnulli ex ejus comitatu curiosiores longius ad Pontum excurrerunt, ubi prope Achillæam quam Chiliam adpellant, remota humo, Græcus quidam ostendit eis monumentum lapideum, cui inscripti sunt sex versus de rebus, morte, et sepultura Nasonis. Versus eos, cui libitum fuerit veritatem exquirere, inveniet apud Michaelem Iseltium in continuatione Surii."

In the same way, the opinions of authors differ with respect to the sepulchre of Ovid at Sabaria, for Stephen Zamosius says, "That Eusebius, as well as George of Trebisond, are refuted by the evidence of a monument, coëval with the event. I am therefore of opinion, that Ovid did not die at Tomi in Mœsia inferior, but died and was buried at Sabaria in Pannonia superior." "Credo Ovidium exulem non uno in loco constitisse, sed in Pannonias quandoque divertisse, ut tædium solitudinis levaret doctorum virorum consortio, qui isthic ex Italia frequentes adventabant, ubi eum tandem mors inperata oppresserit." (*Analect. Daciæ Antiquit. cap. iv.*) On the other hand, Timon having rejected the idea of Zamosius, be-

cause it was at variance with the Elegies of the poet, and supported by the testimony of no ancient author, proposes his conjecture in these words: "Potuit Ovidio Sabariæ ab amico quopiam honorarium monumentum poni. Hunc enim morem non fuisse inusitatum Romanis, auctor est Suetonius, dum scribit, Druso ejusmodi tumulum factum fuisse a militibus in Germania, cum reliquiæ ejus Romam devectæ essent."

Having thus stated both sides of the argument, the reader must judge for himself which approaches most nearly to the truth. I wish, indeed, that any one of those who have written upon the subject had seen the monument, and preserved the inscription; for the verses which we have transcribed are not from the plates which Bruschius describes as found in the sepulchre at Sabaria, but from the stone which Possevin saw at Gnesna in Poland. "On the whole, (continues Schoenvisner,) I am of opinion, that Ovid died in exile at Tomi, and was there honoured with a sepulchral monument; but that, afterwards, his ashes and bones, inclosed in an urn, were brought by one of his friends to Sabaria, where, at the beginning of the 16th century, they were discovered. This conclusion, whilst it supports the authority of Eusebius, does not invalidate the tradition confirmed by several witnesses, that the tomb of Ovid was found at Sabaria. In testimony of the respect paid to Ovid's memory by the Romans, Bellorius may be cited, who observed, in the sepulchre of the family of Naso, in the Via Flaminia at Rome, his figure in a conspicuous place, crowned with laurel. Another ancient Roman preserved the silver pen of Ovid as a memorial. This relic was found at Belgrade about 1540, and was brought to Queen Isabella, wife of John Zapolia, according to Ciofanius, who says, "Isabella Pannoniæ Regina circiter annum MDXL. Ovidii calamum

ex argento Tauruni quæ est urbs inferioris Pannoniæ, ostendit Petro Angelio Bargæo, qui hoc ipsum mihi narravit, cum hac inscriptione: Ovidii Nasonis Calamus: qui non multo ante id tempus sub quibusdam antiquis ruinis fuerat repertus. Eum Regina ipsa plurimi faciebat, et velut rem sacram carum habebat."—Whatever doubts may be entertained respecting the particulars recorded in the preceding narrative, I have not thought it justifiable to neglect any evidence relating to the monument at Sabaria, whether it be the tomb of Ovid, or only a cenotaph in honour of his memory; as, in either case, it tends to prove, that this town was a place of some consequence, even before it was raised to the dignity of a Roman colony."

The interest we naturally attach to every thing which throws light upon the life of an author, whose poetry is so intimately mingled with the associations of our youth, and possesses so powerful a hold on the admiration of our maturer years, must be my excuse for following Schoenvisner through a detail so long and so inconclusive; for I freely confess myself disappointed, on comparing the result with the tone of confidence with which it was often stated to me in the country, that the tomb of Ovid had been discovered amidst the ruins of ancient Sabaria.

The following day, the driver chose to take me, by a short road, across the country to Vasvar. We passed the modern house of Graf Batthyani, which had nothing particular to recommend it, and entered a small forest, on the borders of which we saw a herd of buffaloes grazing. The postillion, as we proceeded, signified his dread of encountering banditti, and with a mysterious air, pointed out a small inn which they frequented. At Hidvég, we came upon the regular post-road, crossed the river Raab by a bridge, and then travelled through

a succession of corn land and forest, till we arrived at Vasvar. This is a country village, with a post-house not much superior to the rest of the cottages. The postmaster was well dressed, but the greatest disorder prevailed throughout his abode, and the kitchen was filled with children who were almost naked. The situation of this village, surrounded by rising ground, clothed with orchards and gardens, is extremely picturesque.

Leaving Vasvar, and looking back from an elevated point, the country we had quitted presented a very rich prospect. The road which led us to Szalaber traversed gentle hills and thick woods; it was generally good, and, in some parts, the peasants were busied in repairing it, under the guard of their taskmasters, the Heiducs of the comitatus.

At Szalaber a very exorbitant and unmanageable postmaster tried to induce me, through fear of banditti, and on other false pretences, to take a long circuitous road towards Keszthely, which was my next object, and refused to let his horses proceed in the direct line, as it was out of the post-road. However, the matter was settled, and all the banditti put to flight, by my agreeing to his terms, and paying a heavy extra charge.

We got away from Szalaber at two o'clock. The country was uninteresting, cultivated but not fertile. Having passed Sz. Groth, which contains some neat houses, we came to a valley, the sides of which were formed by hills covered with wood on their summits, and corn land below. Here the driver mistook his road, and had already gone two or three miles out of his way, when we met a horseman who put us in the right direction. He was an Hungarian nobleman no doubt, from his dress, which was singularly picturesque, and consisted of a large broad-brimmed hat slouched over his

shoulders, an ornamented jacket and tight pantaloons of bright blue, with a number of silver buttons, Hessian boots, a girdle round his waist, in which hung his tobacco pouch, and a large green mantle which fell from his shoulders. We ascended through a steep ravine, charmingly covered on the sides with vineyards and sheep pasture, and at the bottom with corn-fields. From the summit we looked down upon a second valley, the opposite side of which was formed by a steep wooded mountain. It was a fine warm afternoon; vineyards and green meadows partially inclosed by hedges white with the blossoms of the thorn, presented a delightful variety. The evening now began to close rapidly; the heavy buffalo was drawing home the last burden of the day; the lark had just ceased his song; and the croaking of a thousand frogs was the only music which saluted us as we entered Keszthely.

It was already past nine o'clock when we reached this place, and although the Graf Ladislaus Festetits, on giving me a letter of introduction to his father, had particularly warned me against it, I could not help establishing myself for the night at the inn, which was tolerable, in preference to disturbing the mansion at so late an hour. As soon as I had taken full possession, I thought it prudent, however, to send the letter, saying that I would wait myself upon the Graf at an early hour in the morning. I was surprised at the unusual alacrity with which supper was prepared, but I had presently reason to understand that the innkeeper was calculating on the circumstance which actually occurred; for, in spite of all his haste, he had scarcely time to place the supper on the table, before a gentleman entered who introduced himself as the Prefect to the Graf, saying that he came by his particular desire to request that I would immediately change my quarters, and take up my residence in the castle. I hesitated a little, but as

I found it was of no avail, and that the Graf, whose hour of retiring was already come, was rising to receive me, I thought right to comply, stipulating that I should eat the innkeeper's supper, and delay my introduction to the Graf until the following morning.

When arrived at the castle, I was conducted up the chief staircase, through the large banqueting room, to a chamber hung round with portraits, which was destined for me, my servant occupying a room which opened into it. Every thing bespoke comfort, and I had but one source of disturbance, which was at the same time a great amusement. This was a singular species of music, but whence it proceeded, I could not for some time discover. It seemed alternately to swell and die upon the air. It was like the constant playing of small bells. I could imagine at times that it was a number of our English teams, with bells upon the horses' necks travelling along the road, at one moment between woods which deadened the sound, and at another, coming out into the open country. I threw up my window to listen more attentively, and at length discovered the cause of this strange harmony. The moon fell faintly on the Balaton lake, and it was from the water's edge that the sound proceeded, which was no other than the varied tones of myriads of frogs which people the flat and marshy banks.

At seven o'clock in the morning coffee was brought to me, and while I was dressing, the Graf came to pay me a visit, conducted by the Prefect, who introduced us to each other. Never was politeness more marked than in the Graf. He welcomed me heartily to Keszthely, and after touching on a few topics, particularly the objects most worthy of observation at this place, he sent to request, that the professor of botany and the Professor of veterinary medicine would join us, and finally recom-

A VIEW FROM KESZTHELY ON THE BORDERS OF THE BALATEN LAKE.

mending me to their care and that of the Prefect, left us for a time. My reader will, no doubt, wonder what all these professors have to do in the little town of Keszthely. For his satisfaction, I must make him somewhat acquainted with the pursuits of the Graf Festetits. This nobleman lives constantly at Keszthely, where he has a fine library of nearly 15,000 volumes, chiefly collected by his father. From this source of amusement and instruction, he has drawn deeply and successfully, during the hours unoccupied by the more active employments of improving his estates, and superintending the princely *agricultural school*, which he has here established. To this institution he has devoted great attention and large sums of money, and it is deservedly an object upon which he prides himself. Here, then, lies the attraction which has drawn so many learned men to the spot; and I shall enter somewhat at large upon their duties as connected with the school. A few pages cannot be employed more profitably than by relating the exertions of an individual of influence in the country which I describe, directed to its amelioration, and affording another example of that zeal for national improvement which I have already had opportunities of recording.

I shall here then give an account of the Graf's interesting establishment, which I received in MS. from an amateur éleve of the school, who spoke with equal warmth in favour of the institution and the liberality of its founder; and though I afterwards discovered that the greater part of this description had appeared in print in Germany, yet it seems to throw so much light, not only upon the nature of the individual school, but of the state of the country, for which it is intended, that I should have been sorry to retrench any part of it.

The object of this institution for promoting the theory and

practice of agriculture, is to form useful and well instructed officers and accountants for the management of estates, from young men of a superior class; and common workmen and overseers of particular branches, from the sons of the peasantry; and likewise to allow those who possess farm-lands an opportunity of obtaining such knowledge as may enable them to improve the agricultural interests of the country. Hence, the students of the *Georgicon* (for so the institution is called) are divided into the pensioners of the Graf, and the independent scholars. The number of the former, who are supported by this institution, is from eight to ten. The independent scholars are either sent by their patrons, their lords, or their parents, or come of their own accord through a desire to educate themselves as farmers or officers. The school of the Georgicon is divided into different sections.

1*st*, The general school for the theory of agriculture, and the sciences connected with it. 2*dly*, A school for instruction in the knowledge of law, so far as it is connected with agriculture, and the relation subsisting between the lord and the peasant. 3*dly*, The popular school of agriculture for the peasant. 4*thly*, A school for instruction in all branches of knowledge relating to the forest and chace. 5*thly*, The school for the training of horses and the riding-school. 6*thly*, The school for girls, intended to form useful housekeepers.

The theoretical course of all these schools lasts from the beginning of November to the end of August.

I. The common school, for the theory of agriculture, is divided into three principal departments; 1*st*, Simple agriculture; 2*dly*, Mathematics, as connected with agriculture; 3*dly*, The necessary knowledge of medicine and the veterinary art. In each of these departments two professors are appointed,

making six in the whole attached to the institution. Although all the sciences belonging to this school are annually treated at length in the lectures, yet the course for the Graf's pensioners is fixed at three years.

Other students may select, according to their wishes and wants, the course of their studies, and limit themselves to one or two years, as they think fit.

II. With the general school for agricultural science, particular instruction in the juridical management of estates is connected.

The instructions in all these branches of knowledge are given in Latin to the independent students, as most convenient for the various nations and provinces to which it is hoped the Georgicon may be beneficial.

The pensioners receive their instructions in Hungarian.

III. In the popular school of agriculture, instruction, both general and on particular and important points, is conveyed to the peasantry, by two of the pensioners appointed to that office. The length of time spent in this school consists of a greater or less number of years, according to the capacities of the pupils.

IV. In the department of the forest and chace, the instruction is, in part, given by two appointed teachers, in part by assistants from the *Normal school*, established by government in Keszthely, who receive a certain remuneration, and in part by some of the more advanced students. For the youths who are educated in this branch of knowledge, a course of three years is deemed requisite. At the expiration of this time, they reduce their knowledge to practice, under the direction of the forest-master, or the ranger of a district.

Those who are educated for rangers (Jäger) are taught in the German language; those who are brought up for forest-keep-

ers and common foresters, in the Hungarian. The advantages of the whole of this institution are likewise open to strangers.

V. In the riding-school, not only professed horsemen are formed, but gentlemen may be instructed in the necessary knowledge of horses and the manége. For this purpose, two masters are appointed, who go through the course in two years. The agricultural students of the Georgicon are also admitted by particular permission, and allowed to practise in the Graf's riding-house.

VI. The course of the girls' school is fixed for three years, during which time, the scholars receive instruction in useful knowledge from two masters, and in their female occupations from a mistress.

The particular plan of studies in the Georgicon, according to the above mentioned division into schools, is as follows:

I. In the general school of agricultural science, the studies are divided into three courses, each occupying a year, and in each course are appointed three examinations.

First, Objects of agriculture. *In the first year*, for the first examination, at the end of January; culture of land in general; culture of grain, of meadow and artificial grasses; kitchen garden; plants cultivated for manufacture and trade; vineyards; fruit and forest trees. 2*d* Examination, at the end of April; breeding of cattle in general; horses, horned cattle, sheep, and swine in particular. 3*d* Examination, at the end of August; breeding of domesticated foreign fowls; the chace; fishing; care of bees; management of the silk worm.

Second Year.—Arts connected with agriculture and knowledge necessary for housekeeping. 1*st* Examination; the different species of produce and circumstances connected with them; the selection and use of vegetables and fruit; treatment of

wine, and preparation of other articles manufactured from vegetables; culture of the chief plants for trade; choice and economical use of wood. 2*d* Examination; the salting of flesh and fish, with a view of preserving it as an article of food; the uses of certain parts of animals; the preparation of butter, cheese, and suet; manufacture of candles and soap; use of different kinds of fur and hair, brushes and feathers; treatment and use of honey, wax, and silk, with other products from the animal kingdom. 3*d* Examination; the mode of obtaining and using the inflammable minerals; burning bricks, lime, and gypsum; squaring stones; employment of stone and earth; manufacture of glass and salt; preparation of soda, saltpetre, alum, vitriol, sulphat of iron.

In the Third Year, instructions are given on the management of estates.

Secondly, The mathematics. *In the first year*, pure mathematics; for the first examination, arithmetic, and the elements of fractions and algebra; for the second, geometry and mensuration; for the third, the theory of geometry, and the geometry of solids. *In the second year*, for the first examination, trigonometry and practical geometry; for the second, mechanics; for the third, hydraulics and hydrostatics. *In the third year*, for the first and second examination, civic and rural architecture; for the third, accounts and book-keeping. Connected with the mathematics, hours are appointed, on two days of the week, for instructions in architectural drawing, and the laying down of plans.

Thirdly, Physics and the veterinary science. *In the first year*, for the first examination, the elements of natural history, together with the physiology of vegetables, and the principles of physics and chemistry, as connected with agriculture; for the second, natural history of the mineral and vegetable king-

doms in particular; for the third, botany, which has been partly taught by means of botanical excursions, and observations in the forest department of the botanical garden. *In the second year*, for the first examination, the anatomy of animals; for the second, the physiology of animals; for the third, veterinary medicine and pharmacy. *In the third year*, for the first examination, the diseases of animals; for the second, their cure; for the third, the principles of medical police, anthropology, and diætetics.

II. For those who are practising in the economico-juridical direction of estates, besides the jurisdictional practice in the lords' court, lectures are given on the system of agriculture, on the management of estates, and on accounts and book-keeping by double entry; and the students are recommended to make themselves fully masters of the official instructions which are issued.

III. The objects of instruction for the young peasantry are, 1. Reading, writing, and accounts. 2. Religion. 3. Agricultural catechism, or popular instruction in agriculture and the seasons. 4. Shepherd's catechism, or popular instruction in the breeding of cattle, cultivation of fruit, preservation of the forests, management of bees, and of silk worms.

IV. Objects of instruction in the forest institution. *In the first year*, 1. Reading and writing, in the Hungarian and German languages. 2. Arithmetic and elements of geometry. 3. Natural history, general and popular. 4. Instructions in the use of instruments of the chace, and in shooting, also in blowing the horn. 5. Drawing. *In the second year*, 1. Reading and writing, and practice in Hungarian and German composition. 2. The terms used in the science of the forest and in chace, particularly natural history, and the principles of physics and chemistry, as far as necessary to the forester. 3. Geography and

practical geometry, together with practice in drawing. 4. The breaking-in of dogs for the chace, practice in shooting, in hunting, in blowing the horn, and in riding. *In the third year*, 1. Composition, arithmetic, and drawing. 2. Management of forests in theory and practice, the defence and protection of the forests, the employment of the forests, and mechanics. 3. The formation of open or close preserves for game, with the arts of chace, and the laws and right respecting it. 4. Book-keeping, and the system of forest accounts. 5. Practice in the chace, in blowing the horn, and in riding. *In the fourth year*, they are taken to the chace, with the forest-master, or one of the rangers, besides which, the instruction proceeds to 1. A recapitulation of all the objects of the forest and chace. 2. Description of forests, together with the dividing and valuation of forests. 3. Practice in accounts, drawing, and making maps. 4. Strict examination of all the subjects which have been treated.

As the whole of this course is intended for the education of rangers, there is likewise a provision for the education of peasant boys in the forest school, for the offices of forest-keepers and common foresters. These are chosen, in part, from the peasant-pupils of the *Georgicon*, and in part from other boys. In the commencement, they receive instruction in the Georgicon, but afterwards from the rangers, under whose care and inspection they are placed, on the following subjects: Reading and writing, both in Hungarian and German; accounts; the forest and chace calendars; the knowledge of forest trees and shrubs; the mode of employing fire-arms and dogs; together with precautions to be observed in shooting, and the chace; different practical operations required in the forests, as collecting seeds, sowing and planting forests, fencing trees, cutting and sawing wood, making nets, &c.; and likewise in the care of bees.

V. Objects of instruction in the horse and riding school.—*In the first year*, 1. A knowledge of the form of the horse, the care of the horse, harnessing and saddling, care of the stall and breeding stud. 2*d*, Stable accounts, the art of riding and managing the horse; knowledge of articles of horse-furniture, and the mode of using them; and, lastly, the natural history and the physiology of the horse. *In the second year*, 1. The continuation of the theory and practice of riding and managing the horse, and the anatomy of the horse. 2*d*, The diseases of horses, and their treatment. 3*d*, Structure of the hoof, and shoeing.

VI. Objects of instruction in the girls' school. A. *Objects of Knowledge. In the first year*, 1. Practice in reading and writing, both in Hungarian and German; accounts, and particularly the habit of reckoning in the mind. 2. Cosmography, and geography, particularly of the Austrian empire. 3. Natural history. 4. Housekeeping and morality. 5. Religion. *In the second year*, 1. Practice in Hungarian and German composition. 2. Rural economy and natural history. 3. Remarkable occurrences in the history of the country, and the lives of the women who have been most eminent for their virtues. 4. Religion. *In the third year*, 1. Practice in composition and accounts, with the keeping of the house-book and the washing-book. 2. Instruction in cooking, and the making of pastry and confectionary, preparation of liqueurs and distilled waters, and other female occupations. 3. Lessons of prudence, and instructions for preserving health. 4. Religion.

B. *Objects of Female Industry.*

In the first year, 1. Plain and ornamented knitting, the commencement of the sampler. 2. Hemming and seaming, quilt stitch, overcasting, and Hungarian sewing. 3. Music. In this year the pupils are expected to produce a pattern piece of

knitting, a sampler, a plain knit stocking, a child's cap, and a shirt. *In the second year*, continuation of the samplers, knitting a common frock for a child, and an open work cap; together with clothing and gloves. 2. Sewing a pillowcase with button-holes, sewing a shirt and a pair of drawers, and a fine shirt with frills. 3. Spinning on the wheel. 4. Care of silk-worms and the winding of silk. 5. Music. *In the third year*, 1. Fine stockings with clocks; lace making; a lace cap and a purse; knitting a woman's cap. 2. Sewing a great coat with lace; sewing women's clothes and corsets; cutting out and practice in making up caps. 3. Washing, plaiting, and ironing. 4. Drawing, as connected with female work. 5. Cooking, and other economical employments. 6. Music.

In order to afford the agricultural students of the Georgicon opportunities of practice, a farm is set apart from the rest of the Graf's estate. The necessary buildings, yards, and working cattle, are connected with it, and the management of it is entrusted to the teachers and students, according to a certain appointed order, under the superintendence of the general board of direction for the Graf's estates, and a most exact attention in keeping the accounts is strictly insisted upon.

The buildings belonging to the school are a large house for the work people, a set of stalls for fattening oxen, a shed for sheep, a building for preserving maize, a bee-house, and a house for the management of silk-worms, and for preparing silk, cow-stalls, house for pensioners, &c. &c.

The gardens are, kitchen-garden, nursery, plum-garden, orchard of various fruits, and mulberry-garden for the silk-worms. The ground in these three last, except just round the roots of

the trees, is cultivated for instructing the students in the nature, and the modes of raising the various kinds of food for cattle. There is likewise a nursery for forest-trees, in which are cultivated, for the sake of teaching forest-economy, all native trees and shrubs, and such foreign species as thrive in the climate, and seem fitted for the forest, particularly many from North America, which are in a most flourishing condition ;—a vineyard of three joch ;—a newly planted forest of chestnut and other fruit trees, together with a mountain pasture of six joch ; —a forest for timber, of 250 joch ; and arable land, in the cultivation of which, the common three year agriculture is relinquished, and the succession of crops, after the Norfolk system, with such variations as seem fitted to the condition of the people and the state of the country, is introduced. Near the farm-house, thirty acres are set apart for lucern and other artificial food, as turnips, ruta baga, and different species of cabbage, and also for valuable plants used in trade, as flax, hemp, poppy, saffron, tobacco, mustard, rape, and sunflower.

Besides these, 200 joch are divided into 11 fields, for the rotation of crops, and I shall mention the rotations which are generally observed.

1. Year, manure, with some hoed crop, as maize, potatoes, &c.
2. Barley, with clover,
3. 4. Clover,
5. 6. Grass,
7. Wheat,
8. Vetches for fodder, half manured,
9. Rye, or winter wheat,

10. Oats,
11. Rye.

1. Hoed crop,
2. Barley and clover, with manure,
3. Clover for hay,
4. Do.
5. Winter wheat,
6. Vetches for fodder,
7. Rye,
8. Oats,
9. Fallow.

Lucern rotation.

1. Oats with lucern, twice manured,
2.—8. Lucern, Do.
9. Millet,
10. Cabbage, with manure,
11. Peas or lentils,
12. Different species of turnips, with manure.

1. Potatoes, or maize, with manure,
2. Barley, with clover,
3. Clover for hay,
4. Clover,
5. Winter wheat,
6. Vetches for fodder, half manured,
7. Rye,
8. Pasture feeding,
9. Fallow,
10. Rye,
11. Oats.

Koppel Husbandry.

1.—6. Pasture,
7. Fallow,
8. Rye,
9. Maize,
10. Oats.

There are, besides two pieces of meadow, 160 joch, and pasture land, for sheep and cows, 100 joch.

The labourers on the Georgicon consist of 22 regular farm-servants,—the 12 young peasant students, and men hired by the day. The cattle consist of 2 horses, 16 oxen, 24 oxen to be fattened in winter, 10 cows and a bull, and 400 sheep, deeply crossed with the Spanish blood.

To those who are desirous of information upon the subject of horses, the Graf's breeding stud, at Feneck, is open; and such as wish to obtain juridical knowledge, may avail themselves of the proceedings and practice of the fiscal, at the estate of Kepheler.

The offices of steward, accountant, and the directors of the different departments in the estate of the Georgicon, are held by the professors and pensioners. The other students are only to observe the practice in these matters, not being permitted to exercise the duties of officers. When the Graf's pensioners have finished their three year course of study, they are either made assistants of the Georgicon, or they are fixed in offices upon the Graf's estates. The peasant boys having the situations of vice-foresters, bee-masters, &c. given to them.

An Englishman can form but little idea of the complicated machinery of any estate, which requires so much care to fur-

nish it with the necessary officers. But in considering an Hungarian property, we must figure to ourselves a landed proprietor, possessing ten, twenty, or forty estates, distributed in different parts of the kingdom, reckoning his acres by hundreds of thousands, and the peasants upon his estates by numbers almost as great; and remember, that all this extent of land is cultivated, not by farmers, but by his own stewards and officers, who have not only to take care of the agricultural management of the land, but to direct, to a certain extent, the administration of justice amongst the people: and we must farther bear in mind, that perhaps one-third of this extensive territory consists of the deepest forests, affording a retreat and shelter, not only to beasts of prey, but to many lawless and desperate characters, who often defy, for a great length of time, the vigilance of the police,—we shall then have some faint conception of the situation and duties of a Hungarian Magnat.

To regulate such extensive domains, we may easily perceive that much accuracy of detail is necessary, and at times, not a little exertion of power. Accordingly we find in a well regulated Hungarian property, all the subordination which exists in an army, united to all the accuracy of accounts, which is necessary to conduct a mercantile concern. To procure this, a central office is instituted, the mandates and regulations of which are absolute. This office is usually at or near the estate on which the Magnat resides, if he reside on any, and may be considered as the seat of government of these little principalities; such is Eisenstadt to the estates of Prince Esterhazy, Keszthely to those of Graf Festetits, and Kormond to those of the Prince Batthyani. Here a Court of Directors is held at stated periods, usually every week, but this will vary,

as well as the number of officers who compose the court, according to the extent of the estates and the will of the possessors. The following, however, may be considered as the usual officers of such a court; a *President or Plenipotentiary*, whose office it is to preside over all judicial proceedings, and to represent the person of the Magnat. *The Director of Causes*, or *Solicitor*, who conducts legal processes in the assembly of the comitatus, and is employed in other law business. *Five Assessors;* 1*st*, the Prefect, who is referred to by the court in all agricultural affairs, and who superintends the agriculture of the whole domain. 2*d*, The Auditor, referred to in matters of accounts, and who superintends all articles of receipt and expenditure. 3*d*, The Engineer, referred to on all architectural, geometrical, and mechanical subjects. 4*th*, The Fiscal, referred to in law affairs before the directors. 5*th*, The Keeper of the Archives. The Secretaries; the Clerks, &c.

At this court is taken a review of all which has passed, both judicially and economically, and all the alterations and improvements which may be suggested are brought under consideration. Accounts and statements sent in from distant estates are examined, plans of operation for the future, and regulations and directions to be issued in consequence, are finally agreed upon. In some instances, these regulations and orders are printed, particularly if any radical change is to take place, or any admonitions of general importance are to be enforced.

The Hofrichter, or steward of each separate estate, is required to send to the Directors monthly reports of his proceedings, with hints of his future projects, and a most accurate account of all expences; together with the quantity of produce which remains on the estate. The Hofrichter like-

wise holds his weekly court to regulate the concerns of the particular estate which is under his individual management. The officers of each estate are nearly as follows: the *Fiscal*, who takes charge of the law affairs of the lord; the *Hofrichter*, or steward, who conducts the agricultural concerns; the Forest-master; the Engineer; the Treasurer; several *Ispans*, whose duty it is to execute the orders of the Hofrichter, each in his particular district of the estate; many *Pazela*, who, under the direction of the *Ispans*, superintend the labourers; many *Heiducks*, or officers of police, who likewise guard the prisoners, and keep the labourers to their work; Forest-keepers; Rangers; and a Goaler, *(Porkolab.)*

The Hofrichter has great authority in the estate where he resides. He receives, from his Ispans, regular monthly accounts, which he examines and sends, when completed, to the Directors; he consults with the Fiscal, hears the suggestions of the Engineer, and enforces all his orders by his Heiducks.

The Plenipotentiary, who has still more extensive authority and higher pretensions, enters the presence of the Magnat with an uncovered head; the Hofrichter shews the same mark of submission to the Plenipotentiary; the Ispan to the Hofrichter; the Heiduck to the Ispan; and the untitled peasant to the Heiduck. Such is the general outline of the political state of these principalities.

I now return to the Graf's institutions at Keszthely. Soon after the Graf had left us, in the morning, we repaired to the Georgicon. The lower floor of the building, appropriated for the lecture rooms, depositories for philosophical instruments, and collections of different kinds, and for the chambers of pensioners, is the habitation of the farming-servants and their families.

They have here separate apartments ; a great improvement upon the plan usually adopted on Hungarian farms, of lodging them all together in one large room, in which one family occupies a corner, and another a part of the side of the room, and so on without any separation or privacy. In the Georgicon, there are several small rooms which open into one large chamber ; each of them is the habitation of a family. All the rooms are warmed by two stoves in the outer apartment, where the inhabitants cook their dinners and heat their water. The large room also serves as a workshop, in which various branches of carpenters' or coopers' work are carried on. We visited the botanic and the kitchen gardens, and saw the collection of agricultural instruments, both Hungarian and foreign, and inspected the Graf's highly improved flocks and extensive barns.

Even at this centre of improvement was to be traced the long neglected state of Hungarian farming. We found hay unthatched, corn trodden out by the feet of horses and cattle, and flails which, instead of falling with their whole length upon the straw, were armed at the end with a heavy ball of lead, which beat to pieces the few ears on which it fell.

At twelve o'clock we received a summons to dinner, where we found the fiscal and a military officer, who had the command of a recruiting party in this district, and made Keszthely his head-quarters, in attendance upon the Graf. Our dinner was abundantly provided with excellent dishes, and served much in the German manner. The dishes, after being carved at a side-table, if they require it, which is seldom the case, are handed round in succession by servants. After taking coffee, the Graf accompanied me to his library, which is entered by an antichamber, fitted up as an armoury. The library is a magnificent room, with a gallery round it, and filled with books

in all languages. Here a plough was preserved in a place of honour; it was that with which the Archduke John had himself ploughed a furrow, a ceremony which was also performed by the Palatine when he visited the institution, on which occasion the scholars sung Hungarian verses, composed for this festive day, and set to music by the music-master of the school. We next walked together again to the Georgicon, to see the various drawings, surveys, and plans made by the pensioners, and thence into the nursery of forest trees. We here stopped in conversation before an amphitheatre of turf, surrounded by trees, which the Graf informed me was intended for pastoral exhibitions. But at this moment, hearing a dudel-sack strike up, "Here," he exclaimed, "is the very thing; now you may see what kind of exhibition I mean."

Presently, about a dozen lads, dressed in their Hungarian leathern jackets and pantaloons, with boots and large fur caps, came marching on each side towards the terrace. They were the boys of the Graf's forest school, and with them came the piper. Each had a large stick in his hand, and they immediately began a national dance, in which they sometimes moved in a circle, sometimes flourished their sticks triumphantly in the air, threw them upon the ground, then picked them up again; struck their boots with their open hands; clapped their heels together, making a loud clattering noise; then came towards the middle, with their sticks across, or pointed in varied directions, and maintained a succession of spirited manœuvres. At length the different exertions, which often became very violent, being at an end, the actors retired as they had entered, to the sound of the rustic pipes. After this little exhibition, I was shewn the Prefect's collection of minerals, and in the evening, about eight o'clock,

we went to supper with the Graf, a meal nearly as substantial, and served in the same manner, as the dinner.

In order to give an exact idea of the practical operations carried on in the agricultural establishment which we have been considering, and which is more or less adopted throughout the whole of Graf Festetits's estates, I shall here insert an account of the work done at the Georgicon, between October 1813 and January 1815. The incidental information which may be gathered from it respecting climate and the natural and artificial products of the Hungarian soil, give this detail a much higher value than it could derive from its reference to any particular institution.

In November, December, 1813, *January* 1814.

On the 3d large section of arable land, manure was spread; in the 9th section, the *Polygonum fagopyrum* was sown in November, the turnips were taken up and cleaned, part were sent to the market, and part were kept in store for the cattle. Then three-quarters of this section were ploughed. Four-fifths of the 3d section of the sheep pasture, after digging the potatoes which had been planted there, were ploughed. The experimental sections were ploughed according to the appointed order. From the 11th and 24th small sections, the common beet and the *Beta altissima* were dug up, and, after being cleaned, were stored in the cellar of the Georgicon. The 1st, 2d, 3d, 4th, 11th, 12th, 13th, and 24th small sections were ploughed, the 9th, 10th, 21st, and 22d, together with some sections for the lucern of the first year, were manured. The 8th and 23d sections, as also some sections for lucern of the first year, were watered with the draining of the dung heap, as

in the year before, a hoed crop had been cultivated there with dung.

2. The 8th section of the sheep pasture was enclosed.

3. Manure was carried to the vineyards; the furrows which had been dug on the preceding spring were made even, and the whole manured, partly with dung, and partly with mould from the forest. The more tender fruit trees were protected with straw from the hares.

4. In the forest, the places which were left vacant by the fall of the last year, and on which young trees had not sprung up, were in part sown with birch nuts, and in part planted with young oaks; and the parts of the forest in which the fall was to take place this year, were assigned by the chief forest-keeper.

5. In the kitchen-garden, different vegetables were dug up, and either sold or stored in the cellar. The late seeds were gathered, cleaned, and preserved in their proper place. The garden beds and borders were dug; the first and second garden beds were dressed. The asparagus was earthed up, the hotbeds were prepared, and, in some, the different vegetables intended for seed were sown.

6. Some tender trees in the economico-botanic garden, as the *Morus papyrifera Sinensis*, *Cercis Canadensis*, *Taxus baccata*, *Vitex Agnus castus*, were bound round with straw, and covered with leaves, both to protect them from the hares, and keep off the frost. On the hill of the Grotto, the *Lycium barbarum* was planted, and also on the eastern side of the canal. The gaps of the growing hedges were made good with the *Robinia pseudacacia*, and *Prunus spinosa*.

7. In the large forest nursery, furrows were dug, and many species of trees planted, as, for instance, the *Fagus sylvatica* in the 58th section; the *Sorbus aucuparia* in the 10th

section ; the *Pyrus malus*, *Pyrus communis*, and *Cratægus oxyacantha*, in the 2d ; *Syringa vulgaris* in the 3d ; *Rhamnus frangula* in the 11th. With a view of protecting the part intended for the spectators at the *Rural Theatre*, the *Carpinus betulus* was planted. Some species, as the *Cytisus laburnum*, *Robinia hispida*, *Spartium junceum*, were bound with straw, to protect them from hares ; the gaps in the live hedges of this nursery were repaired.

8. The borders in the agricultural garden which are devoted to the growth of foreign grain, were dug, and some of them manured. From the nursery in this garden, several sorts of trees were removed, as the *Cornus alba*, *Tamarix Germanica*, *Acer negundo*, *Lycium barbarum*, some of which were planted in the garden of the Georgicon ; some were sent to the estate at Sagh.

9. In the fruit nursery, the fig trees were first covered with reeds, and over these fresh dung was laid. Some apple and pear trees were sent to Sagh.

10. In the fruit garden, the places of such trees as had died were supplied by others, and all were bound round with straw. The live hedge on the east was put in order, and holes dug in the ditch for planting Canadian poplars in the spring. In the chesnut garden, a live hedge of mulberry trees was planted.

11. In the farm-yard of the Georgicon, the binding of hay and chaff cutting, with a view to the winter feeding of the cattle, was carried on with industry ; several agricultural instruments were prepared by the workmen of the Georgicon. The clover, lucern, and buckwheat seed, and a great part of the grain, was thrashed out ; the sheep-fold was cleaned from dung.

It must be here remarked, that, during this winter quar

ter, his Excellence Graf George Festetits, and his son Graf Ladislaus Festetits, who also takes great interest in agricultural pursuits, added to the collection of instruments in the Georgicon many valuable machines, particularly the plough of Mr Jordan. The museum of the Georgicon has, during this period, been better arranged, by dividing it into the three departments of Agriculture, Mathematics, and that of Natural History, Physics, and the Veterinary art: the particular inspection of which is entrusted to their respective professors, Rumi, Janosy, and Liebald.

In February, March, and April, 1814.

1. In the Arable Fields.—In the 2d large section, one-fourth was planted with potatoes, three-fourths with maize. In the 3d section, one *joch* was sown with Georgian oats, other parts were sown with summer wheat and barley and clover. In the 4th and 5th clover sections, the mole heaps were levelled, and clover seed immediately put in; the 7th section was sown with vetches for fodder mixed with a few oats; in one small marshy place, an experiment was made of sowing the *Tonnen lein* lately procured from Riga. In the 9th section, oats were sown without addition.

In the smaller sections, in three-fourths of the 1st section, Howard's potatoes were planted; in two-thirds of the 2d peas, and in one-sixteenth lentils. In the 4th section millet, in the 11th, 12th, and 24th, oats and lucern. The lucern sections were harrowed with the iron harrow, and the dung raked from the 1st and 4th year lucern sections at its proper time.

In the experimental sections, the Egyptian oat and the naked barley (*Hordeum distichon nudum*) was sown, and in the sections devoted to the Fellenberg succession of crops Neapolitan

wheat was sown with clover, and Swiss potatoes were planted.

2*dly*, The Meadow Lands were levelled, and the places injured by moles sown with grass-seeds.

3*dly*, The 2d section of the Sheep Pasture was sown with barley, except one joch and a quarter, in which the Egyptian oat was sown. In the 4th section maize was planted, and a hedge was set round the 5th.

4*th*, In the Vineyards, the vines were at the proper season cut, hoed, and provided with poles, increased by means of layers, and then slightly covered with dung.

5*th*, In the Forest.—The felling of timber, and the carrying it away, was begun upon, care being taken to leave young trees sufficient to fill up the vacant spaces, and the forest was cleared from much of the underwood.

6*th*, In the Garden.—In the kitchen-garden, the first bed being manured, was planted with cabbage, kohlrübe, and the large-headed cabbage; in the 3d and 4th the winter sallad was earthed up; one-half of the 5th bed was planted with early cucumbers and peas. On a part of the 6th bed the seed of the *Beta altissima*, of the red beet, and of the rutabaga, were sown; in the rest of that bed early cauliflowers were planted. On this bed likewise three hotbeds were made, in which celery, onions, early large-headed cabbage, early cauliflower, and different species of tobacco, were sown, and the seeds of cucumbers planted. In the 7th bed early large-headed cabbages were planted. In the 8th parsley, carrots, parsnips, poppies, and early sugar-peas, were sown; at the edges of the 3d, 4th, 5th, and 8th beds, different species of beans and peas, leeks, fennel, lavender, celery, &c. were sown.

In the nursery, the young trees were supported with props, and cleared of their useless scions; acacias and apples were sown.

In the botanic garden, different trees and plants, as the *Platanus occidentalis* and *orientalis*, the *Cytisus laburnum*, *Cornus alba*, *Tamarix Germanica*, were dug up and transplanted; and, on the other hand, the seeds of the *Pinus sylvestris*, *Larix*, *Picea*, *Juniperus virginiana*, *Mespilus pyracantha*, &c. were sown; also the *Borrago officinalis* was sown in the bee-garden. In the other divisions of this garden different species of peas, beans, barley, and oats, and many other vegetables, important in agriculture, were sown, and several kinds of potatoes planted. In some borders, a variety of perennial grasses and plants were cultivated.

In the small forest nursery, the trees were cleared of useless shoots and dead branches, and the *Hedera helix* was planted against the south wall.

In the large forest nursery, Italian poplars were planted near the theatre, and in the sections many species of the *Plane-tree*, the *Cytisus laburnum*, *Pinus sylvestris*, *Acer platanoides*, &c.

In the fruit-garden, the fruit plants were cleared of their shoots and dead branches. Around the 5th section of the pasture, different trees and shrubs were planted.

7. In the farm-yard, the dry fodder of the cattle was, towards the end of April, changed for green food; but so that it was still mixed with half the quantity of hay. The sheep were driven to pasture according to the weather, but the lambs were kept in the house. Different agricultural implements, as ploughs, carts, axles, poles, rakes, &c. were prepared for the labour of the spring and summer, the binding of hay and chaff cutting proceeded, the grain was thrashed and winnowed, and the straw, in part, used either as food or litter, and the remainder preserved.

May, June, July, August, 1814.

In the Arable Lands.—In the large sections, the potatoes and the maize were, with the exception of a small part left for the experiment, cleaned and earthed up by means of the horse-hoe and the drill-plough. The winter and summer wheat, the rye, the barley, and the oats, were brought in. The clover, and the mixed crop of oats and vetches, were mowed and covered. The Riga flax was pulled and freed from its seed-capsules. The fields destined for the winter sowing were ploughed for the second and third time.

In the small sections, the potatoes were cleaned and earthed. The tobacco, cabbage, and beet, were planted out and afterwards twice hoed; the tobacco the second time with the hand-cultivator. The *Panicum germanicum* and the flax were weeded; the rape, peas, and lentils, were mowed; the flax pulled. The lucern being cut, was partly used as green fodder for the cows in the stalls, and partly dried as hay.

In the experimental sections, the common, the Neapolitan, and the Sicilian wheat, were cut; the Egyptian oats and the naked barley were mowed; the Swiss potatoes were cleaned and earthed; the clover was twice mowed.

In the meadows.—The natural meadows were once mowed; the artificial grass twice; the hay was covered, but was unfortunately much injured by the wet weather.

In the sections devoted to the Koppelwirthschaft, the rye and the barley were mowed and carried in, the maize cleaned and earthed, and the land destined for the next crop of rye was ploughed.

In the Garden.—In the kitchen-garden, celery, onions,

early cabbage, beet, early cauliflower, sallad, leeks, and tobacco, were transplanted; late peas and French beans and cucumber-seeds sown; a sunk bed was planted with winter cabbages and kohlrüben; the necessary earthing, weeding, and watering, were not neglected.

In the botanical garden, different kinds of tobacco, cabbage, turnips, and the *Capsicum annuum*, were planted, the different plants were cleaned, earthed, and watered, as necessity required. The ripe foreign grains were cut, dried, and specimens having been taken for the museum, the rest was carried to the granary set apart for them.

In the Nursery, the trees which had been grafted, were freed from sprouts and supported by props, and others were budded. The whole was weeded and set in order.

In the great and small forest-garden, and in the fruit-garden, the trees were pruned, and the earth around their roots was moved.

In the vineyard, the vacant spaces were filled up, and the earth was twice hoed.

In the forest, the falling of timber ceased, the different divisions were freed from useless underwood, and the timber which had been fallen in the winter was removed.

In the farm-yard, the stall-feeding was practised with great success; the cultivation of silk was fortunate, the sheep were put up for breeding, and the bees swarmed.

September, October, November, and December, 1814.

1. In the Arable Lands.—In the experimental sections, the fourth, which is one-half joch in extent, was drilled in the English manner, and sown with Tunisian wheat and the Walachian herbaceous corn, *Secale cereale multicaule Valachium.*

In the sixth section, after cutting the clover twice, and ploughing the land three times, common winter wheat was sown. The clover on the ninth section, which had grown up after the harvest of the Neapolitan summer wheat, was cut for the cows; the remaining sections were ploughed for summer crops.

In the small sections.—The lucern, from the 5th to the 12th, and from the 18th to the 23d, each of which sections contains an erdjoch, was mowed, and in part used green for the stall-feeding of the cows in the Georgicon, and from a part of it 50 loads of hay were made. The Howard's potatoes on the first section were dug, the large ones separated from the small, and 140 metzen of the former, with 40 metzen of the latter, brought into the cellar. From the second section, Peruvian and Virginian tobacco, lentils and peas; from the third, large-headed cabbages, and from the fourth, millet were gathered in. From the 13th was procured a crop of the *Beta altissima;* from the 14th, summer wheat; from the 15th, rape. The 16th laid fallow; the 17th yielded the *Hordeum cæleste.*

In the great sections, the first section, lying fallow, was ploughed for maize to be planted the following spring. The clover, which had grown on the third section since the barley was carried in, was mowed, and one part employed green as food for the cattle, and the rest made into hay. The clover cut from the 4th section was altogether dried for hay. In the fourth section, after the clover had been mowed, and the land three times ploughed, 24 metzen of Tunisian and 11 metzen of common wheat were sown, and on the *erdjoch* lying between them the herbaceous corn; the 7th section of 18 joch, after mowing the crop of vetches mixed with oats, and after three times ploughing, was sown with 24 metzen of Walachian herbaceous corn. The 6th, 8th, and 9th sections

were, after the harvest, ploughed to be sown in the following spring.

2. In the Pasture Sections. Around the 4th section shrubs of all kinds were planted; around the 5th and 9th sections trees were planted in the places of those which had died. The 10th section was, after three ploughings, sown with common rye.

3. In the Meadow Land.—At Szeget and Dobogo the mowing of the after-grass, which commenced in August, was completed in September. In October, November, and December, the dams which had been ruined by the great floods were repaired, and the canals cleaned out.

4. In the Vineyard.—During September, the business of plucking off the leaves of the vines, and clearing the stocks from weeds, was completed; and, in October, the vintage, which here, as through all the country was very bad, took place. After the vintage, holes were dug to receive the layers of the vines. In November and December, dung was carried to the vineyards, the poles were taken away, and the layers bent into the holes destined to receive them.

5. In the Forest.—In the divisions which had been fallen on the preceding year, the seeds of forest trees were sown, and the falling and carrying of timber from the divisions appointed for the present year commenced.

6. In the Kitchen-Garden.—In September, the winter sallad was planted, the celery, the garlic, and the onions, the red beet, the *Capsicum annuum*, the late cabbage, and the kohlrüben, were loosened from the earth, and the seeds of the earlier matured plants were collected and cleaned. In October the above-mentioned kitchen vegetables were dug out, in part sold, and in part laid up in the places appropriated for them; the seeds which came later to maturity were gathered in Oc-

tober, and properly preserved. In November and December, the garden beds and borders were dug up.

7. In the Botanical Garden.—In September and October, the late seeds were collected and preserved, and their different species of winter grain sown in the appointed beds, and the *Borrago officinalis*, here sown for the bees, was gathered for seed. In November and December, the borders intended for summer grain were dug.

8. In the Nursery.—The earth in which the young trees stand was often turned. The fig trees were covered with reeds and unfermented dung, to shelter them from the cold of winter; also, some apple, pear, and mulberry trees were taken up, of which the former were planted in the fruit garden, the latter employed for forming live hedges.

9. In the Fruit Garden, the earth was dug around some of the young trees, and the trees were freed from dead branches and useless sprouts. Fresh plants were substituted for such as were dead. In December, the fruit trees were bound about with straw, to protect them from the cold. In the chestnut garden, holes were dug, and wild chestnuts planted in them.

10. In the larger and smaller Forest Garden new trees were planted, and the different trees protected against cold and the depredations of hares.

11. In the Farm-Yard.—The straw was cut into chaff for the cattle, by means of a new instrument received from Vienna in September; different grain was thrashed; the sheep dung carried from time to time to the heaps, and various implements prepared.

During this period, the Georgicon was enriched by many seeds procured by Graf Ladislaus Festetits, in his journey through Germany and Switzerland.

The noble establishment of Graf George Festetits was the second attempt of the kind which was made in Hungary, having been anticipated only by the Royal Institution for Practical Agriculture at Szarvas. The example was followed in the year 1802, by the founding of another institution at Szent-Miklos, according to the last will of Christopher Nako, who, at his death in 1800, left land and a considerable fund for this purpose. The objects proposed in each were nearly similar, except that, in the last, the instruction of the peasant formed a more prominent feature, the others having been nearly restricted to the education of agricultural officers.

The nobles of Germany have, for many years, perceived the high importance of agricultural improvement, and have acknowledged the value of a scientific acquaintance, as well as a practical experience in the operations of rural economy. With this impression on their minds, the highest nobility in all the Austrian provinces have been active in establishing agricultural societies. The Archduke John has greatly encouraged and patronized that of Vienna; the Bohemian nobles have stimulated the exertions of the society established at Prague; in Carinthia, that of Klagenfurt has grown into importance; and, in Styria, that of Gratz. In all these, premiums have been distributed, and subjects proposed for the investigation of the members, a considerable spirit of emulation has been excited, and the substantial interest which the extensive proprietors have had in the various inquiries connected with the improvement of their estates, has been the guarantee and the security for their continued exertions. Besides these societies, establishments for agricultural education, both public and private, have arisen in various parts of the Austrian dominions. In these attempts, Bohemia has been peculiarly distinguished, and the Princes Lichtenstein and Schwartzenberg have, more

than any others, contributed towards this object of national improvement. The institution of the latter at Krummau in Bohemia has now flourished since the year 1801, sustained by the unabating zeal of its founder; and the liberal and sound principles on which it is conducted render it an object of most deserved admiration. The objects proposed in this institution are of the same nature as those of the Georgicon; and, for the admission of pupils, an examination is annually held to inquire into the claims of candidates. These young men must have attained the age of 15, and, besides possessing unexceptionable characters, must be acquainted with the elements of arithmetic, grammar, and writing, and, all other qualifications being equal, preference is given to the sons of the prince's own officers or servants. Four new pupils are admitted annually, and are provided with all the necessaries of life, being lodged in the family mansion, and, under certain circumstances, provided with money; and, if they conduct themselves satisfactorily during the three years course of studies, they are appointed to offices on the estates. This institution is also open to any other person, as far as respects instruction; and even travelling strangers, who wish to avail themselves of the opportunity, are at liberty to gather information at this school as long as their time will admit. One of the most important objects which has occupied attention in these schools has been the cultivation of the forests, respecting which fears, perhaps not ill-founded, have been entertained, lest, by neglect and improvident destruction, a real deficiency, both in timber and fuel, should ultimately result. Amongst the first who turned their minds effectually to this subject, was Graf Bouquoi, who, at his estate at Gratz in Bohemia, educated many young men, whose exertions afterwards became very beneficial in the forests of that kingdom. At his death, however, the institution fell

to the ground. Prince Lichtenstein early engaged in the same object; and Prince Schwartzenberg established a school for the education of forest-keepers and rangers for his own estates, extensively distributed throughout Bohemia. Prince Nicolaus Esterhazy established at Eisenstadt in Hungary, a forest school which, under the direction of four professors, themselves practical men, and a teacher of the Hungarian language, embraced instructions in geometry, trigonometry, composition as connected with matters of business, architecture, and the science of the forests; and the Prince devoted to this a fund sufficient for the constant maintenance of fifteen scholars during the time they pursued their studies, appointing them afterwards to situations in his own estates. At the commencement of this century, a forest school was instituted at Hradek, a royal domain in the Leptau comitatus of Hungary. I have already made mention of the forest school at Schemnitz, which is a national foundation; another was established at Karansebes, in the comitatus of Kaschau in Upper Hungary, about 1810; but the chief school of this kind is the one which was established about the year 1812, at Maria Brunn, under the direction of the present Emperor. This is completely a national institution, and is provided with every thing necessary to render it extensively useful.

Thaer in Prussia, and Fellenberg in Switzerland, deserve peculiar praise amongst those who have early turned their attention to the instruction of young men in the different pursuits of agriculture. The former of these is well known in every part of Germany, and the name of Fellenberg, whose exertions have had great influence in Austria, is scarcely less celebrated. It was about the beginning of this century that his establishment first grew into notice; the estate connected with it consists of about 260 joch; and the im-

plements of agriculture which are manufactured at the institution, are purchased by all who are anxious to improve the agriculture of their country. Connected with the agricultural school, is another for general education, and many of the first families in Switzerland and Germany have had children educated at Hofwyl. A still more interesting part of the establishment is a school for poor children, who are instructed with great care in the midst of active employment. The master, whose name is Werli, is devoted to his occupation, and takes every opportunity to convey instruction to his pupils, from the passing occurrences of their day's employment. The improvements which are daily adopted at Keszthely, from the inventions of the Fellenberg school, connect it, in a peculiar manner, with the present subject of our consideration, and witness strongly in favour of its excellence.

An object of no small importance, which has partially claimed the attention both of the government and nobles of Austria, is the cultivation of fruit-trees. It is still, however, too much neglected, and is particularly overlooked in Hungary. In that part of Hungary, immediately bordering upon Austria, around Œdenburg, Güns, and Pressburg, a little attention has been bestowed upon it; and in the comitatus of Raab, Gran, Comorn, Neutra, Neograd, Gömör, and Borschod, some fruit is cultivated; but, in general, all those nice distinctions of varieties, and all those accurate details in the management and culture, which can alone secure progressive improvement, are altogether unknown. The plum, the cherry, the pear, and the apple, distinguished by no farther appellation, flourish in abundance in every district of the country. Peaches and apricots, as standard trees, take their chance in the vineyards, and the chestnut grows freely in the forests. Yet even in this respect, improvement has commenced her work. As early as the year 1793,

Joh. Paul Szernoh, the master of a public school at Jelschau, in the comitatus of Gömör, laid the foundation of a *Pomologic* society, the members of which pursued with ardour the improvement of the various fruit-trees; and by a report of their proceedings, given in 1809, it appeared that they had procured from different countries, and increased under their own care, 53 different sorts of apples, 53 pears, 15 plums, 12 cherries, and 3 apricots.

In the year 1808, the Archduke Louis, on visiting the district of the German Banat Military Regiment, laid the plan of a fruit nursery, which he put under the care of Captain Bert, an experienced horticulturist, devoting nine joch of land at Jabuca to this purpose, and supplying it with seeds and young trees, of the best sorts, from the Imperial Gardens at Vienna. In this nursery, four young men, of different villages in the regimental district, were to be employed in the practical labour, receiving instructions from the director, and every year one of them was to return to his home, and have his place filled by a proper person from another village, so that, in time, the knowledge might be disseminated through every part of the district; and as the subject became better understood, a connected series of nurseries was projected for each different company of the regiment; this being done, the trees were to be distributed, at the least expence possible, to all the inhabitants of the district. In four years, such progress had been made, that the chief nursery was able to supply plants and seeds for the formation of an inferior nursery for one company, which was accordingly established at Goyon. The following year, two more companies' nurseries were established at Starosowa and Homolitz, and in 1815, a similar one at Neudorf. In 1816, two others were formed at Kubin and Grebenatz, when it was expected that, in three years, the

whole plan of companies' fruit nurseries would be completed. This project has already been attended with the most promising results, in the encouragement it has given, and the general emulation it has been the means of inspiring.

The Austrian government has, during the last fifty years, interested itself considerably in this branch of national improvement, and by many decrees published since that period, has called the attention of the people to the subject, proposing rewards and threatening punishment; but these decrees have, in a particular way, referred to Bohemia, Moravia, and Gallicia, and some of them bear the appearance rather of official instructions than of decrees or commands.

The commencement of all this care appears to have originated with Maria Theresia when she improved the gardens of Schönbrun, and confided to Van der Schot, the court gardener, the business of procuring from Holland and France the best fruit trees. This collection was greatly increased by his successor Franz Bredemayer, who, at the command of the Emperor Joseph, travelled through Germany, Italy, Spain, France, Holland, England, and South and North America, and returning with great stores, both of specimens and of information, not only enriched the imperial garden, but laid the foundation of several fruit-gardens for different noblemen, amongst which one at Pressburg was greatly distinguished.

In 1799 Professor Wärter established a fruit nursery in the suburbs of Vienna, where he collected a great variety of valuable trees, and this example was followed by Dr Wöber, and by a gentleman of the name of Sauer, who instituted a nursery near Klosterneuberg on the Danube.

In Bohemia, perhaps more than any other part of the Austrian territories, this, like all the other objects of agricultural improvement, has been pursued with eagerness. As early

as 1795, Rössler Dean of Podiebrad in that country, had so enriched his own collection of fruit trees, that, in an account published at Vienna, it appeared he had obtained 266 different sorts of apples, 181 of pears, 31 of peaches, 12 apricots, 46 cherries, and 34 plums, and since that time he has constantly proceeded with zeal. Nomodny, the head gardener upon the estate of Prince Schwartzenberg, at Liebingitz in Bohemia, has for 26 years contested the palm of victory with Rössler, and, besides having brought to perfection ten large fruit-gardens, has cultivated avenues of fruit trees in all directions, from the family mansion as their centre. This collection amounts to 489 varieties of apples, 260 of pears, 98 plums, 116 cherries, 16 peaches, and 9 gooseberries; and the prince has so successfully encouraged his peasantry to cultivate fruit, by annually selling to them at a low price a number of young trees, that almost every cottage has its orchard or its fruit-garden. Similar plans have been adopted by different landed proprietors, amongst whom may be particularly mentioned Prince Antony Lobkowitz on his extensive estates.

In the report of Professor Rumi, many foreign grains are mentioned, as having occupied the attention of the agriculturists at Keszthely, and in this instance likewise, we find that the good example has been followed, and the officers of the imperial estates have been amongst the first to institute experiments in order to ascertain the probable advantages of adopting the products of other countries. In the year 1808, 1809, and 1810 in particular, researches of this kind were made on some royal estates at Altsohl and Dobronyiwa, where not less than 68 different species of grain, chiefly from Naples, Sicily, and the Levant, were sown. Indeed, it may be truly asserted, that a spirit of agricultural zeal has prevailed throughout the whole Austrian dominions for the last 50 years; and although Hun-

gary has not kept equal pace with Bohemia, Styria, or Moravia, yet the nobles of this country are now roused to emulation, and the establishment of the agricultural school of Graf Festetits may be considered as forming an epoch in the history of Hungarian prosperity.

After passing one or two days at Keszthely, I set out with Professor Liebald on a tour in the neighbourhood, chiefly with a view to the mineralogy of some curious insulated mountains, which rise like fragments left after the decay of the high lands, to which they appear once to have belonged. Our road was first along the flat banks of the lake, which are so low as to be subject to frequent inundations. We had then before us limestone hills covered with deep and extensive forests, over the gentle elevation of which our road soon conducted us. From this we again descended on the plain, which is of great extent, and interrupted only by the insulated rocky mountains of which I speak, situated at considerable distances from each other. We were obliged to make a wider circuit to avoid marshy grounds, and it was nearly evening before we arrived at Keszi.

We preferred going to the inn rather than to the house of an officer of Prince Esterhazy, who lived here, although the professor assured me, we should be lodged with a hearty welcome. The innkeeper and his wife received my companion with the characteristic cordiality of the country, and, whilst they prepared supper, we went to call upon some of the professor's friends. No one was ever treated with greater kindness than my companion and myself, but we refused all the offers which were made, and returned to the inn, where we had invited two Italian officers to sup with us. We had met them in one of our calls, and they were previously acquainted with my friend. They were from amongst those whom

the Austrian government had withdrawn from Italy, and quartered in Hungary and the distant provinces. It may easily be supposed, how galling this arrangement was to our visitors, who complained of it without reserve. Indeed this and representations of their miserable quarters in the peasants' houses, filled up the greater part of the conversation till we separated.

Early in the morning we ascended the hill of Csobantz, which rises immediately from the village. The bottom of this hill was *sand*, with iron and glittering particles like fine ground mica pervading the whole. Higher, and apparently lying above this, is found a true *porous scoriated lava*, not only in loose masses, but actually firm as if in its natural situation. Higher still, the hill is formed of a columnar mass, approaching so nearly to a *basaltic greenstone*, as perhaps not to be distinguished from it.

The ascent offers a series of the most beautiful views. The hill is itself covered with rich vineyards, amongst which the houses of the vine-dressers, and the vaults for containing wine, afford picturesque fore-grounds; whilst, in the distance, the prospect is varied by other insulated mountains, and the fine extent of the Balaton lake.

Many of the spring-flowers were just bursting into blossom. The *Anemone pulsatilla* was the most abundant. On the summit are the remains of an old castle, the former habitation of a nobleman of the family of Guyla, who was driven from the kingdom for treasonable practices, and his castle destroyed. A large thicket of lilac trees still remains, evidently a remnant of his garden, for the tree is not indigenous, though much cultivated in Hungary. We returned to the inn, where some refreshments were prepared, but it was with the utmost difficulty the good people could be persuaded to take any money

for the entertainment; we were at last obliged to leave it on the table. They seemed really disappointed, that they were not permitted to shew unrewarded hospitality to their friend and his foreign guest.

We drove from Keszi to a sheep-farm belonging to Prince Esterhazy, at a short distance round the mountain, where our reception by the *Rechnungs führer*, the chief officer of the establishment, and his wife, was marked by the same pleasing good-will which seemed to accompany all our visits.

The house of the superintendent is in the range of buildings erected for the protection of the flock. The sheep-stalls or cots of Prince Esterhazy are usually built, as this was, in a complete square, so as to protect the flocks on all sides, whilst Graf Festetits prefers having them closed in to the north and the east only. The flock on this estate amounts to about 5000, very much improved by Spanish crosses, but is by no means the finest belonging to the Prince. Indeed, it must require a long period before the whole 300,000, of which this nobleman's flocks consist, can be brought to the perfection of his breeding stock in the comitatus of Œdenburg, which are perhaps not inferior to the original Spanish. It is from that estate that his improved breed extends itself, and to the office at Eisenstadt, that the monthly reports are sent with the greatest regularity from all the distant flocks. The exact degree of improvement, the number of sheep, and the quantity of wool, is thus known with accuracy. The quantity of food and all the expences, together with the probable income which may be expected from the estate during the current year, are likewise objects of this report. The board of direction at Eisenstadt regulates its sales, not by an inspection of the sheep, but by the registers. There are known to be a certain

number of sheep, of a certain age and state of improvement. These are no longer requisite, and are to be sold. In the same manner, such and such classes of wool are to be disposed of, and the sales take place without any particular inspection of samples. With respect to the care taken in the breeding and rearing of sheep, it is much of the same character as that described on the estate of Graf Hunyadi, but it is not carried to such perfection. The lambs were just now falling in great numbers every day, and were inclosed with their mothers, each in a little separate pen, as I have before described. Every one was marked upon the face, and a corresponding mark was placed upon the ewe, in order that no errors might arise concerning their genealogy.

Returning to the house, we found dinner preparing by the hostess, and I employed my time in gaining some insight into the agricultural and economical arrangements of the Prince's estates. The general plan I have already mentioned with respect to others, but this being the greatest divided territory of all the Hungarian magnats, requires even more official care than any thing I had before witnessed.

To facilitate this business, every chief officer is provided with different printed tabular forms, which he is required to fill up at stated times, and send to Eisenstadt. These tables are most ingeniously contrived to embrace every circumstance connected with the regulations, expences, and profits, of the estates, and ensure an exact correspondence in the mode of keeping accounts adopted by the superintendents of the distant estates. A few of them are here inserted to explain the principle upon which they are formed. The first, second, third, and fourth tables, are taken from the heads of the columns containing the daily accounts, which are filled up regularly by the proper officer. The fifth and sixth, which, like all the rest,

sufficiently speak for themselves, are intended as the regular accounts of the state of breeding and the wool. The seventh is the hospital register. The eighth is connected with a disease among the sheep, much dreaded on the Continent, but apparently amenable to the same laws as small-pox in the human subject, and certainly capable of being greatly alleviated by inoculation. The ninth contains an account of the skins in the possession of the manager of the farm; and the tenth, of those sheep which, being no longer required to fulfil the objects of the board of direction, are intended to be sold. The eleventh is the register of the farming servants, and answers many very valuable ends, particularly enabling the supreme direction to reward or promote merit. The twelfth table is intended to convey every necessary information respecting the yearly product of each farm, whether in grain or fodder, and its employment; and, together with the thirteenth and fourteenth, forms a kind of suit, having the different columns numbered to facilitate reference from the one to the other. The fourteenth, however, is calculated in a more particular manner to point out the relation between the quantity of food actually existing on the estate, and the quantity which will be required for the cattle with which it is stocked, in order that the proper measures may be taken to equalize the food and the consumption in the different estates, by transporting the fodder, or disposing of the cattle. And the thirteenth contains a more particular statement of a number of minute facts relative to the produce of the farm and its expenditure, which will be best understood by reference to the table itself.

1

Sheep-Farm Kalendar.

	Day.	Sheep-Farm, Csobantz.						Months.	Days.
		Head-Shepherd, ———							
0	1	Generation.	Character.	Number.	Total.			January	31
0	2	2 Crosses.	Old.	2000	8000.			February	28
0	3		Young.	2000				March	31
0	4							April	30
0	5	3 Crosses.	2 Years.	2000				May	31
0	6		4 Tooth.	500				June	30
0	7	Completely Fine.	Young.	1500				July	31
*	8							August	31
0	9	Description of Sheep.				Description of all the Pastures of the Farm.		September	30
0	10							October	31
0	11					*This kalendar must be every day marked by the Head-Shepherd, in order that the Sheep may be visited.*		November	30
0	12							December	31
0	13	Old.	4 Tooth.	2 Years.	Young.				
0	14	0	0	0	0				
0	15								
0	16	0	*	0	0	*Meadow below Keszi.*			
0	17								
0	18	0	0	0	0				
0	19	0	0	0	0				
0	20								
0	21	0	0	0	0				
0	22	0	0	*	0	*Hill of Csobantz.*			
0	23								
0	24	0	0	0	0				
0	25								
0	26	0	0	0	0				
0	27	0	0	0	0				
0	28	*	0	0	0	*Marsh.*			
0	29								
0	30	0	0	0	0				
0	31	0	0	0	0				
		0	0	0	*	*Rising grounds below the vineyard of* ———			
		0	0	0	0				

TABLE I.—Daily Accounts, to be kept in every Sheep-Farm.

Day of Month.	*Reference to Journal.*	Ewes Farm ———	RECEIPTS. 2 Generations. Old.	2 Generations. 4 Tooth.	3 Generations. Old.	3 Generations. 4 Tooth.	3 Generations. 2 Years.	Fine. Young.	Fine. Old.	Fine. 4 Tooth.	Fine. 2 Years.	Fine. Young.	Total Receipt.	EXPENDITURE. 2 Generations. Old.	2 Generations. 4 Tooth.	3 Generations. Old.	3 Generations. 4 Tooth.	3 Generations. 2 Years.	Fine. Young.	Fine. Old.	Fine. 4 Tooth.	Fine. 2 Years.	Fine. Young.	Total Expenditure or Outgoing.
			Head of Sheep.											Head of Sheep.										

TABLE II.—Daily Account.

Day of Month.	*Reference to Journal.*	Unproductive Sheep. Farm ———	RECEIPTS. Rams. Fine. Old.	Rams. Fine. 4 Tooth.	Rams. Fine. 2 Years.	Rams. Fine. Young.	Wethers. 3 Generations. Old.	Wethers. 3 Generations. 4 Tooth.	Wethers. 3 Generations. 2 Years.	Wethers. 3 Generations. Young.	Wethers. Fine. Old.	Wethers. Fine. 4 Tooth.	Wethers. Fine. 2 Years.	Wethers. Fine. Young.	Total Receipt.	EXPENDITURE. Rams. Fine. Old.	Rams. Fine. 4 Tooth.	Rams. Fine. 2 Years.	Rams. Fine. Young.	Wethers. 3 Generations. Old.	Wethers. 3 Generations. 4 Tooth.	Wethers. 3 Generations. 2 Years.	Wethers. 3 Generations. Young.	Wethers. Fine. Old.	Wethers. Fine. 4 Tooth.	Wethers. Fine. 2 Years.	Wethers. Fine. Young.	Total Expenditure or Outgoing.
			Head of Sheep.													Head of Sheep.												

TABLE III.—Daily Account.

Day of Month.	*Reference to Journal.*	Fodder. Farm, &c.	Potatoes.	Mohar (*Panicum Germanicum.*)	RECEIPT. Vetches. cwt.	Clover. Styrian. cwt.	Clover. Styrian. lb.	Clover. Lucerne. cwt.	Clover. Lucerne. lb.	Hay. cwt.	Hay. lb.	After Grass. cwt.	After Grass. lb.	Straw. Oats. cwt.	Straw. Oats. lb.	Straw. Barley. cwt.	Straw. Barley. lb.	Straw. Wheat. cwt.	Straw. Wheat. lb.	Straw. Rye. cwt.	Straw. Rye. lb.	EXPENDITURE. Vetches. cwt.	Clover. Styrian. cwt.	Clover. Styrian. lb.	Clover. Lucerne. cwt.	Clover. Lucerne. lb.	Hay. cwt.	Hay. lb.	After Grass. cwt.	After Grass. lb.	Straw. Oats. cwt.	Straw. Oats. lb.	Straw. Barley. cwt.	Straw. Barley. lb.	Straw. Wheat. cwt.	Straw. Wheat. lb.	Straw. Rye. cwt.	Straw. Rye. lb.

TABLE IV.—Daily Account.

Day of Month.	*Reference to Journal.*	Grain, Meal, Salt at the Farm, &c. &c.	RECEIPT. Grain. Oats.	Meal. Oat.	Meal. Barley.	Rock Salt.	EXPENDITURE. Grain. Oats.	Meal. Oat.	Meal. Barley.	Rock Salt.
			Metz.	Metzen.	cwt. lb.		Metzen.	cwt. lb.		

TABLE V.

Name of the Estate.	Name of the Farm.	1. Period of being put up for breeding.		2. Number of Ewes intended for breeding.		3. Total.	4. From the productive stock must be taken away			5. Total.	6. Skins of still-born lambs found useful.	7. Lambing time.		8. Lambs born alive.		9. Total.	10. Lambs of the 8th column which have died.	11. Lambs sold.		12. Total.	13. Number of lambs, after taking off the 10th and 11th columns.			14. Total of Lambs.	15. Produce per hundred of the ewes mentioned in the 2d column.
		Beginning.	End.	Old and 4 Tooth.	2 Year old, or yearling.		Ewes which have died before lambing	Ewes which have missed their lambs.	Ewes which have remained unfruitful.			Beginning.	End.	Rams.	Ewes.			Rams.	Ewes.		Rams.	Ewes.	Wethers.		
				Head of Sheep.										Head of Sheep.											

TABLE VI.

Name of the Farm.	Day of		Have been Shorn.																		Number of Head.	Total weight of Wool.	
			Rams.				Ewes.						Wethers.									Tare.	Clean weight of Wool.
	Shearing.	Delivering up the Wool.	Old, 4 Tooth, and 2 years.	Clear produce in Wool.	From each.	Yearlings.	Clear produce in Wool.	From each.	Old, 4 Tooth, and 2 years.	Clear produce in Wool.	From each.	Yearlings.	Clear produce in Wool.	From each.	Old, 4 Tooth, and 2 years.	Clear produce in Wool.	From each.	Yearlings.	Clear produce in Wool.	From each.			
			Head.	cwt.	lb.	lb.	Head.	cwt.	lb.	lb.	Head.	cwt.	lb.	lb.	Head.	cwt.	lb.	lb.	Head.	cwt.	lb.	lb.	Head.	cwt.	lb.	cwt.	lb.

TABLE VII.—Estate ———, Month ——— 181—.
To be delivered in Monthly.

Name of Farm.	Sick.			Killed on account of Sickness.			Particulars of Dead, and cause of Death.								Sum of Dead.	
	Old, 4 Tooth, and 2 Years.	Young.	Total.	Old, 4 Tooth, and 2 Years.	Young.	Total.										
	Head of Sheep.															

Beneath this Table is placed an account of the state of the remaining sheep, together with the diseases under which they labour, and the remedies employed.

TABLE VIII.—View of the progress and result of the Natural and Inoculated Sheep-Pock on the Estate ———, the District ———, from ——— till ——— 181—.
To be delivered in Monthly.

Name of Farm.	NATURAL.																	INOCULATED.														
	Month and day in which the Disease appeared.	Number of Sick.				Recovered.				Died.				Remain Sick.				Month and day of the First Inoculation. Name of Inoculator.	Number.		Have taken the Infection.		Have not taken Infection.		Month and day of Second Inoculation, and name of Inoculator.	Number.		Have taken Infection.		Have not taken.	
		Mild.		Severe.		Mild.		Severe.		Mild.		Severe.		Mild.		Severe.																
		Young.	Old.	Young.	Old.	Young.	Old.	Young.	Old.	Young.	Old.	Young.	Old.	Young.	Old.	Young.	Old.		Young.	Old.	Young.	Old.	Young.	Old.		Young.	Old.	Young.	Old.	Young.	Old.

At the bottom of this Table is to be noticed whether the natural sheep-pock now exists in the flock, and of what kind, and whether now epidemic. It is to be remarked, that, in the second part of this table, no columns have been left for taking notice of the deaths, or of the severe and malignant cases of the disease, because, after inoculation, such consequences are very rare.

TABLE IX.—View of the Skins of Sheep which have died, or been killed, in this district.

Name of the Depository.	Old, 4 Tooth, and 2 year old, skins.	Skins of young Sheep.	Lamb Skins.	Skins of still-born Lambs.	Observations.
	Head.				
Sum.					
Given up. Sold.					
Remain for the next month.					

TABLE X.—View of the Lambs intended for Sale.

Name of Farm.	Ram.	Ewe.	Total.	Remarks.
	Head.			
Sum.				
Sold.				
Remain.				

TABLE XI.—Conduct Table for the Sheep Farm, District of ——— during the ——— quarter of the year 181

Name of the Sheep Farm.	Present employment, and since how long.	Name of the Individual.	Birth-place.	Age.	Unmarried.	Married.	Children.	Has formerly served at	Number of years in the Prince's service.	Speaks. German.	Speaks. Hungarian.	Speaks. Sclavonian.	Writes.	Pay. Florins.	Remarks upon their knowledge and conduct.
sobanz.	*Sheep Master for 3 years.*	*Jean Gaul.*	*Kessi.*	40.	—	*yes*	2.	*Kessi.*	10 *years.*	*yes.*	*yes.*	—	*yes.*	70.	

In this way, the whole Table was filled up; and in those which I chanced to see, I perceived that many had been long in the service of the Prince, that some spoke all the three languages, almost the whole spoke two, and several could write.

This Table is filled up every quarter, and sent to the General Office of Directors, having on the other side a Table describing the different flocks, their number, and to what shepherd's care they are particularly committed.

TABLE XII.

Sheep-Farm, ————
Spanatus,

Account of the Agricultural Produce for the year 181—, and of its employment.
Deductio super Procreatione et Conversione omnis generis Pabuli pro 181—.

State of Cultivation of the Meadows and Ploughed Land. *Status Culturæ Pratorum et Agrorum.* 1.				2.			
State of the Meadow lands, and the Produce used to supply its place. *Prata et Surrogatorum agri.*	Joch. *Jug.*	Average produce *per* Joch. *Procreatio Diameter per Jugerum.* Cwt. *Cent.*	10 a Ct.	Grain Sown, *Inseminatio Granorum.*	Joch. *Jug.*	Average produce *per* Joch. *Procreatio Diameter per Jugerum.* *Cruces.*	Mz.
Meadow, - *Prata,* -				Wheat, - *Tritici puri.*			
Lucerne, - *Lucerna,* -				Mixed Grain, *Tritici mixti.*			
Clover, - *Trif. Styr.* -				Rye, - *Siliginis,* -			
Esparsette, -				Barley, - *Hordei,* -			
Vetches, - *Vicia,* -				Oats, - *Avenæ,* -			
Mohár, - Panic. Germ.							
Mixed, - *Mixtum,* -							
Panicum, -				Summa,			
Peas, - *Pisa,* -							
Lentils, - *Lentes,* -							
Potatoes, - *Cyclamina,*		*Met.* Metzen.					
White Turnip, *Rapae albae,*				Add the Lands cultivated with Surrogate Crops. *Additis tenutis Surrogatorum.*			
Burg. Turnip, *Rapae burg.*							
Lucerne, - *Lucerna,* -		For Pasture. *Programine.*					
Clover, - *Trif. Styri.*				Fallows. *Arvis,*			
Esparsette,							
Vetches, - *Vicia,* -							
Mixed, - *Mixtum,* -							
Summa of Surrogate Produce. *A tenutorum pro Surrogato.*				Summa,			

TABLE XIII.

[To face P. 406.]

Sheep-Farm, ——
Spanatus,

3.

Produce and Weight, *Deductio Procreationis et Ponderis.*			
Roots. *Radices.*	Produce, *Procreatio.*	Weight of 1 Metzen. *Pondus 1 Met.*	Total Weight, *Pondus.*
	Mel.	lb.	Cent.
Potatoes, *Cyclamini.* White Turnips, *Rapæ albæ.* Burg. Turnips, *Rapæ Burg.*			
Summa,			

4. Entire Produce in Straw, *Procreatio Summaria Straminis.*

From the Culture of the Land, *Procreatio Allod.* From Lands held by Peasants on account of a certain Share, *Erga ratum.* 9th and 10th paid by the Peasants, *Nona et Decima.*	Wheat Straw, *Tritici puri.*	Mixed Straw, *Tritici mixti.*	Rye Straw, *Siliginis.*	Barley Straw, *Hordei.*	Oat Straw, *Avenæ.*
	Mandels each—Sheafs,		Crux à—Manip.		
Summa,					

5. Calculation of the Weight of the Straw, *Deductio Ponderis Straminis.*

Wheat, *Tritici puri.*	Mixed, *Tritici mixti.*	Rye, *Siliginis.*	Barley, *Hordei.*	Oats, *Avenæ.*	
Mandels yield according to the average of each al— *Cruces dederunt juxta Pondus dimidium 1 Crucis a—*					
— lb.	— lb.	— lb.	— lb.	— lb.	— lb.
Cwt. *Centenaria.*					
Summa,					

Whole Weight of Straw, *Pondus Summarium Straminis.*
Cwt.

Comparison of the Produce and Employment of the Straw, *Combinatio Procreationis et Concessionis Straminis.* 12.

The whole Produce stands, *Procreatio stetit cum,* - -

The Expenditure stands, *Consensio exinde pro Stramine,*

Straw for Food, *Pabulari,* - - -		From the 10th Column.
Rough Straw, *Culcato,* - - - -		From the 11th Column.
In Sheaf, *In Manipulis,* - -		
Summa,		

7. Circumstances of the Farm as respects Fodder, *Status totalis Pabuli.*

8.

	Hay, *Fœnum.*		After Grass, *Cordum.*		Surrogata.						
6.	Sweet, *Dulce.*	Sour, *Acidum.*	Sweet, *Dulce.*	Sour, *Acidum.*	Lucerne, *Lucerna.*	Clover, *Trifol. Styri.*	*Esparcette.*	Vetches, *Vicia.*	*Mohár.*	Mixed, *Mixtum.*	Potatoes and Peas for Fodder, *Panic. Pisa Lentes pab.*
	Cwt. *Centenarii.*										
Of former Crops, *Remanentii.*											
Of the present Year, *Nova Percept.*											
Whole Stock. *Summa Perceptionis,*											
Food required for *Necessitas Pabuli pro* — Horses, *Equis.* (a.)											
— Draught Oxen, *Bobus jugalib.* (b.)											
— Dairy Cattle, *Helvetia Pecor.* (c.)											
— Sheep, *Ovibus.* (d.)											
— *Conventional.* (e.)											
— Sundry Expenditure, *Mixtis Erogat.* (f.)											
Letters referring to other Tables.											
Summa *Necessitatis,* Of the demand.											
Thus an overplus, *Adeoque Supernatantia,*											
Deficiency, *Defectus,*											

Employment of the overplus, *Conversio supernatantiæ,*
Mode of supplying the deficiency, *Resarcitio defectus.*

9.

Potatoes, *Cyclamina.*	*Rapæ,* Turnips.	
	White, *Rapæ.*	Burgundy. *Burgund.*
Cwt. *Centenarii.*		

10. Straw for Fodder, *Stramen pabulare.*

Wheat, *Tritici puri.*	Mixed, *Tritici mixti.*	Rye, *Siliginis.*	Barley, *Hordei.*	Oats, *Avenæ.*	Palea et Quisquil.
Cwt. *Centenarii.*					

14. Sum of the equivalent Weight of Nourishing Food, according to Column 13. *Summa ponderis æquival.*

11. Litter of Straw, *Strumentum e Stramine.*

Rough, *Culcato.*	In sheaf, *In manipulis.*
	20 lb.
	Frustu.

13. Standard of the equivalent Weights of different food. *Canon æquival. ponderis.*

To supply the place of one Pound of nourishing Food will be required of *Ad supplendum unum pondus pabuli nutrientis requiritur ex*

	lb.
Sweet Hay, *Fœno Dulci,* - - -	1
Sour Hay, *Fœno Acido,* - - -	1
Sweet after Grass, *Cordo Dulci,* - - -	1
Sour ditto, *Cordo Acido,* - - -	1
Lucerna, - - - -	1
Clover, *Trifol. Styriac.* - -	1
Esparcette, - - -	1
Vetches, *Vicubus,* - - - -	1
Mohár, - - - - -	1
Mixed, *Mixtis,* - - - -	1
Potatoes, *Cyclamii,* - - - -	2
White Turnips, *Rapis Albis,* - - -	2
Burgundy Turnips, *Rapas Burgund.* - -	2
Welch Straw, *Stramine vicinarum,* -	1½
Panic Straw, *Stramine Panici,* - -	1½
Mohár Straw, *Stramine Mohár,* - -	1
Pea and Lentil Straw, *Stram. Pisor. et Lent.* -	1½
Maize Straw, *Stramine Tritici,* - -	2
Rye Straw, *Stramine Siliginis,* -	2
Barley Straw, *Stramine Hordei,* -	1½
Oat Straw, *Stramine Avenæ,* -	1½
Palea, - - - - -	1½
Quisquiliis, - - -	1½

TABLE XIV.

Condition of the Farm as respects Fodder, *Totalis Pabuli Status.*

15.	16.	17.				18.		19.		20.			21.			
Letters of Reference.	The Number of Cattle. *Num. Pecorum.*	Species of Cattle, *Species Pecorum.*	Length of Time they require food for *Duratio Temporis pro Pabulo.*				During *Per.*		Daily for each Animal *Dictim pro 1 Frustro.*		Nourishing Fodder, *Pabulum Nutriens.*			Litter of Straw, *Stramentum e Stramine.*			
			From *A.*		Till *Usque.*		Months, *Menses.*	Days, *Dies.*	Food, *Pabulum.*	Litter, *Stramentum.*	Specifically.		Collectively.	Rough, *Calcato.*	In Sheaf. *In Manipul.*	Rough, *Calcato.*	In Sheaf. *In Manipul.*
											Specifically.					Collectively.	
			Dat.	Month, *Mense.*	Dat.	Month, *Mensem.*			lb.		Cwt. *Cent.*	to a Cr.	Cwt. *Cent.*	Cwt. *Cent.*	Sheaf. *Frusta.*	Cwt. *Cent.*	Sheaf. *Frusta.*
														22.			
											Summa,			Summa,			

As an accompaniment to these tables, I have given a copy of an ingenious contrivance, termed the *Sheep-Farm Kalendar*, which is rendered highly useful by the circumstances under which the distant farms are placed. This kalendar, printed on a sheet of paper, and fixed to a tablet, is suspended in the house of the chief shepherd residing in the farm-yard. The object is to give immediate information to any of the officers of the estate, who come upon business either to visit the flocks, or to arrange sales and other matters, so that they may, without loss of time, repair to any particular flock. Supposing then, a little moveable peg of wood to be inserted in each of those points of the kalendar which are marked with an asterisk, the information conveyed is as follows. To-day being the 8th of April, a month containing thirty days, the four tooth sheep, consisting of 500, which have been crossed three times with Spanish blood, are to be found in the meadow below Keszi. The two year old sheep, which are 2000 in number, and have likewise been three times crossed, are on the hill of Csobantz. The old sheep, 2000 in number, and twice crossed, are in the Marsh. The young, which amount to 1500, and may be considered as completely fine, are on the rising ground below the vineyard. And thus the position of the pegs being changed with the day, or the altered destination of the sheep, and all the different names by which the grounds are distinguished, being properly inserted, no one who comes to visit the flock can ever feel himself at a loss. We were likewise shewn, amongst a variety of other things, which bespoke the care and accuracy of the conductors, a long printed charge just arrived from Eisenstadt, enforcing many points relative to the conduct of officers, and the management of the flocks. Having dined with the Rechnungs-führer and his family, when our host found he could

not prolong our stay, he ordered his carriage that he might accompany us a little on our road.

I shall take this opportunity of reverting once more to the active spirit of agricultural improvement which has marked not only Hungary, but the whole of Austria, particularly during the last 20 years. I have already stated, that the improvement of the race of sheep had occupied the attention of Government as early as the year 1773; but it has been chiefly since the commencement of the present century that the exertions of individuals have largely seconded these views. The different agricultural associations have forwarded the object; the nobles have incurred heavy expence in its pursuit; and books written in Austria to encourage and instruct, and to describe the progress made, have been received with the strongest marks of respect, not only by the societies for promoting objects of rural economy, but by the ruling heads of other German states. Without entering on a full account of these exertions, which are too numerous to be stated in a short compass, I shall communicate a few facts connected with the flocks of those who were amongst the first zealous improvers of the breed, and from whose stock a considerable share of the Hungarian Spanish blood has been derived. I am indebted for these facts to the information of an intelligent friend, a Saxon nobleman, who himself bore a part in the improvements he related.

Baron Geisler, on his estate at Hostitz, near Cremsir in Moravia, maintains constantly, as his breeding flock, about 300 sheep, and annually sells those of which he has no need with the wool, for about 80,000 florins in paper money. From the 300 which he shears, he obtained, in 1810, thirteen centners of wool, and sold this at the rate of 1800 florins the centner; each ewe generally yields an average fleece of more than three pfunds.

Many of the rams give eight pfunds. The Baron pays the most minute attention to the progress of his flock, keeping accurate registers of their pedigree, accompanied with annotations referring to their different qualities and imperfections, both as to their fleece, their mode of feeding, and their care in rearing their lambs,—with a view to which, each sheep had formerly a mark hung around the neck by a plaited cord, with a wire in the middle to secure it from breaking, but this has latterly been changed for a mark upon the face. The sheep are constantly kept in an airy stall, to which, even in winter, there are nothing but loose wicker doors; but they are never driven out till the dew is off the ground; and if the weather is very cloudy, or if it rains, it is deemed better to let them remain without food than to expose them to the wet. If the rain and moist weather continue all day, they are fed in the evening with good rye or barley-straw; oat-straw being bitter in the summer. The lambs have hay, or the dried branches of the oak, or lime with the leaves, which, in August, or the beginning of September, are cut for this purpose, and dried in the air. The sheep eat this dry food in wet weather with great alacrity, although, in dry weather, they refuse it. He never gives his sheep chopped straw mixed with rye, or barley-meal and salt, because, when once accustomed to this, they are unwilling to eat the long straw. If any of the ewes fail in their milk, they have meal and salt given in water.

In Saxony, much attention has been paid to the Spanish sheep, but the economy of the sheep-farm is there less understood than in Hungary; and, during the winter, they frequently consume so much grain, that the whole profit of the wool is taken away. This was formerly the case on the estates of Graf Bresler until the cultivation of potatoes became general, when

he fed his flock, amounting to between 10,000 and 12,000, during the winter, entirely upon this vegetable; he generally allowed for their three daily meals 7 Dresden Scheffels, (each weighing about 170 pfunds,) of the large white English potatoe, to every flock of 300 sheep. The potatoes were washed clean, cut with an iron instrument, and given in their raw state, well mixed up with a small quantity of barley-meal and chopped hay or straw, and moistened with a little salt water, and a small quantity of the wash from a distillery;—after every meal of potatoes, they had a little uncut rye-straw and some hay, so that each animal received about 4 pfunds of nourishment in the day.

Graf Betusy in Upper Silesia, thinking it too expensive to feed his sheep upon whole potatoes, distilled spirit from them, and fed his sheep upon the wash, and as much straw as they would eat besides, and this with complete success; in Carinthia, the Graf von Thurn Valesasina was one of the early encouragers of this breed; and, as a proof of the interest which the subject has excited, nothing can be more convincing than the following account of the yearly meeting which was held in 1810 at Holitsch: "On the 21st of August, the annual sale of improved sheep took place on the Royal Family estate at Holitsch, where his Majesty has, at so much expence, established and maintained the sheep-farm for improving the breed of sheep. On this occasion, 700 rams, and 3200 ewes, partly original Spanish, and partly sheep in a high degree improved were offered for sale. A great number of persons from the first nobility of Hungary, Bohemia, and Moravia, the neighbouring landed proprietors, and those who wished to purchase, from the most remote parts of the empire, were collected on the spot. Many rams sold from 2000 to 7000 florins, (from L. 100 to L. 300 Sterling at least;) but one pure Spanish ram of three years

old, and, in truth, surpassing every thing which had been seen, in the quantity and excellence of its wool, sold for the immense price of 16,200 florins, (at least L. 800.) The purchaser of this ram was the well-known Dr Joseph v. Hopfen, proprietor of the estate Idolsberg, near Krems. Although this price at first surprised all the bidders, yet, within a few hours, Dr Hopfen had two separate offers of 25,000 florins from Hungarian noblemen, which he refused.

"This fact shews how much progress the breeding of sheep has made in Austria within a short period, not only from the actual improvement which has taken place on the imperial farms, and on many private farms, as on those of Prince Esterhazy and Prince Kaunitz, and of Graf Erdödi, and many others; but the competition of purchasers having become so great, is an additional proof. This rapid progress, in an object so highly important for the national industry, holds out the fairest prospects for the prosperity of the cloth and woollen manufactories of Austria, which have indeed, within a short time, become considerable.

"The emulation of the proprietors of lands to keep pace in every point of agricultural improvement, not only with each other, but with all foreign countries, is particularly brought into view upon occasions like this. Thus Dr Hopfen, on his estate at Idolsberg, has not only a highly improved flock, for which he made the purchase we have mentioned, but has likewise introduced a great number of the new machines and implements adopted in England and Germany; and he imparts to all, with the greatest liberality, the result of his own experience of the advantages to be derived from their employment."

It has been already stated in this volume, that the number of sheep in Hungary is estimated at above 10,000,000, of which 6,000,000 are supposed to be improved, a very large

proportion of the whole, which, however, may be easily accounted for on the known fact that the flocks, as well as the lands, are almost entirely in the hands of the great proprietors, who possess ample means for carrying their improvements into effect, and whose profits are derived from the fleece and not the carcass. We must always bear in mind that the independent privileges of the Hungarian nobles, which exempts them from all kinds of taxes and imposts, together with the extensive nature of their possessions, renders it almost impossible to gain correct information respecting their property; and their flocks can only be estimated from very imperfect data. In other parts of the Austrian dominions, this is not the case; and by an authentic statement published in 1813, the number of sheep in the different provinces respectively was as follows:

In Bohemia,	1,090,241
Moravia and Austrian Silesia,	438,501
Austria under the Enns,	352,021
——— over the Enns,	108,126
Styria,	156,971
Carinthia,	80,459
Gallicia,	443,308
	2,669,627

From this statement it appeared that the increase beyond the preceding year had been considerable, amounting on the whole to 90,228. Bohemia had increased 49,546; Moravia and Silesia 2616; Austria under the Enns 35,242; Carinthia 3364; and Gallicia 8522. In Austria over the Enns, and in Styria, the numbers had been rather diminished. We have likewise the following estimates given us of the horned cattle and horses in the same year:

	Oxen.	Cows.	Horses.
In Bohemia,	257,779	617,476	119,122
Moravia and Silesia,	54,368	285,551	126,124
Austria under the Enns,	87,744	185,370	56,547
——— over the Enns,	53,504	117,102	17,518
Styria, - -	99,086	217,909	49,892
Carinthia, -	29,083	40,306	9,431
Gallicia, -	340,168	622,151	238,790
	921,732	2,085,865	617,424

From these statements it is found, that both the oxen, cows, and horses, had diminished considerably since the former year, when the whole amount had been 923,404 oxen, 2,096,232 cows, and 630,957 horses. The horned cattle had, however, rather increased in Austria under the Enns and in Gallicia, and the horses had increased in Austria under the Enns and in Carinthia. Fluctuations of this kind will naturally take place in all countries, from the state of the crops, and consequent abundance or deficiency of food; and still more in time of war when other causes may be supposed to operate; besides which, the horned cattle, in particular, are subject to extensive ravages from epidemic disease; the increase or decrease, therefore, of a single year does not convey much information as to the agricultural progress.

Our first object on leaving Csobantz was the hill Badacson, celebrated for a wine, not very unlike that of Tokay. On the way our conductor pointed out several pieces of fallow land, which he said belonged to peasants, who were often so indolent that they would suffer their portions of land to lie uncultivated every second year, or several years together. I was not astonished that this should be the case. They are poor lands, standing in constant need of manure, in the hands of needy

masters, most of them possessing a small piece of vineyard upon the neighbouring hill, their occupation continually interrupted by the calls of their chieftains, and the claims of government; what little time remains, they bestow upon their vineyard as upon a lottery, a blank is drawn, and the adventurer becomes a burdensome beggar, dependent on his lord. This is no fiction of the mind, no delusive inference from theory, but the daily observation of those who travel through Hungary with their senses awake. There are scarcely any situations, in which the cruel effects of making the labouring class dependent upon the harvest for support, are so well marked as in the wine districts, because the temptation held out by the prospect of a good crop is so strong, the attention required so great, and the recurrence of bad years so frequent. If we suppose a prudent peasantry, and an opportunity afforded to them, as at Keszthely, of employing their spare time even at the usual low price of labour, and a year tolerably favourable to the vine, their condition is sufficiently comfortable. But two unfruitful years, such as the last two had been, change the scene. Taxes and tributes to the state are still demanded; poverty brings a competition of workmen, the price of labour is reduced, the peasant has no wine to drink or sell, for the little which he had is already disposed of. He must now give a much higher price for what he wants. He labours in his vineyard in hopes of a more favourable year; but, in the meanwhile, has nothing on which to subsist. Some monied man presents himself, usually a Jew, to whom, for a trifling advance, he pledges, by a verbal process, the wine of the coming year, but of which he can yet form no calculation; he thus becomes involved more and more deeply, and, at length, is irretrievably ruined. Then it is that the prisons are crowded. The facts are not uncommon,

they are notorious; and Dr Lübeck, in his description of the richest wine district in Hungary, makes the following valuable remarks:

"While my pen," says the author, "is employed on the subject of the cultivation of the vine, I cannot help observing, that, in spite of the high price of day labour, which often rises to 51 kreutzers per day, and in spite of the excellent sale of the Méneser wine, and the *Trockenbeeren*, of which half a mass will sell for 30 kreutzers, yet the peasant, with all his frugality, his mean clothing, and his lowly habitation, is almost always poor; and how much more must this be the case in the less fertile wine districts, where the peasant for a few eimers of wine, which he himself consumes, leaves his other occupations, neglects himself, and loses his moral character, in a manner very striking, when compared with countries where there is no wine, as I have often observed in the Szaláder, Weszpremer, Stuhlweissenburger, Tolnauer, Baranyer, and the Schümegher comitatus, and in Slavonia, and in some of the country about the Theiss. Were it not to be wished, that some experimentalist could devise a practicable mode of limiting the cultivation of the vine; and that the incorporated labourers of Pressburg, Œdenburg, Rusth, and Ofen, could extend themselves to our country, so that the cultivation of the vineyard might be altogether put into the hands of persons confined to this employment as day-labourers."

Some circumstances connected with the mode in which the peasants are allowed to possess vineyards greatly increase the evil of this species of property. They are permitted to purchase vineyards, but with the constant burden of paying one-tenth of the produce to the lord of the soil; and if the lord at any time wishes to repurchase, it is only necessary that he should have the vineyard valued by two persons appointed by the comi-

tatus, and at the sum so estimated the peasant must sell. If the peasant at any time wishes to dispose of his vineyard, he must ask the lord whether he is willing to purchase it; in which case, no bargain can be made with another person. The result is, that this permission to increase his vineyards, induces the peasant, in many cases, to seek, as an indulgence from his lord, the extension of this fatal property; for which he frequently resigns the advantages of his regular sessional lands, and deprives himself even of the possibility of retrieving, by industry, the misfortunes of the vintage.

But to return to the foot of the hill Badacson. We here stopped and sent the carriages round, whilst we walked over the summit in spite of a few sullen expostulations from the peasants cultivating the little vineyards, of which they are proprietors. We were noblemen, at least we were well dressed, and to such the peasant is accustomed to conduct himself with humility. We presently gained a path covered with fragments of very *porous scoriæ*, which led to a singular opening in the *columnar rock*, called the Iron Gateway. Upon the top of this hill, the height of which is considerable, perhaps 500 feet above the plain, we entered a complete forest, amidst oaks of magnificent size, where we traced, though but faintly, a cavity, which might be supposed the remains of a *crater*. Whether this be really the case, I will not decide, but I have seldom seen any substances more volcanic in their appearance, than the mineral products of this hill.

The rocks here exposed assume a semi-columnar structure, and are divided into horizontal beds, about a foot in thickness. Their texture approaches very near to that of some lavas, and they contain *olivine*. But the circumstance which struck me most was, that, in descending, I found a tufa, the basis being sandstone, with scoriated fragments, which bore the

strongest resemblance to the only rocky mass which is to be found in ascending Hecla.

A most singular effect of light now compensated for the unpleasant fog in which we had been enveloped, upon the summit of the mountain. We got beneath the vapour, which extended itself like a covering, a little above us, and over the Balaton Lake, the farther side of which it concealed from our view, while the lake itself, and the promontory, stretching from the side on which we stood, were beautifully clear. After passing a few small vineyards, one of which is the property, and forms the summer residence, of the celebrated Hungarian poet, Kis Faludii, we came to a large vineyard belonging to Prince Esterhazy. Here we found the carriage in waiting; and, after examining the great wine-press, which presses at once the grapes gathered in a whole day by 72 men, and the vessels in which a famous aromatic cordial, made by boiling wormwood and some other herbs in new wine, is prepared, we departed, and the Professor and myself again proceeded on our journey.

With respect to the Hungarian wines in general, their quality might probably be much improved, if attention were paid to the selection of good grapes, and to the separation of the ripe from the unripe fruit. This, however, is not to be expected from peasants, whose measure of a good wine year consists in the number of casks which are filled, and not in the quality of the produce. In consequence of the vineyards being chiefly in the hands of such proprietors, the greater part of the common wine found in the inns of Hungary is very poor. It is generally a white wine, but faintly coloured from the mixture of grapes of every species. Some of the finest sorts, however, have obtained a celebrity which originally arose from the peculiar care bestowed upon the manufacture, and which has become, in its turn, a stimulus to new exertions. Foremost

amongst these wines is that which bears the name of Tokay, and which is the product of the country around the town of Tokay, called the Submontine district, or the *Hégyallya*, which extends over a space of about 20 English miles. Throughout the whole of this country, it is the custom to collect the grapes which have become dry and sweet, like raisins, whilst hanging on the trees. They are gathered one by one, and it is from them alone (which, in 1807, sold for 100 florins the cask of 180 halbes on the spot) that the prime Tokay, or, as it is termed, Tokay Ausbruch, is prepared. They are first put together in a cask, in the bottom of which holes are bored to let that portion of the juice escape, which will run from them without any pressure. This, which is called Tokay essence, is generally in very small quantity, and very highly prized. The grapes are then put into a vat, and trampled with the bare feet, no greater pressure being permitted. To the squeezed mass is next added an equal quantity of good wine, which is allowed to stand for 24 hours, and is then strained. This juice, without farther preparation, becomes the far-famed wine of Tokay, which is difficult to be obtained, and sells in Vienna at the rate of L. 12 Sterling per dozen. The greater part of these vineyards are the property of the Emperor; several, however, are in the hands of nobles.

Another species of Hungarian wine, called Méneser, is said to equal Tokay; next to that in value come the wines of Œdenburg, Rusth, St Gyorgy, and Ofen, followed by a great variety whose names are as various as the hills which produce them. It is said that the vine was first introduced by the Emperor Probus, in the fourth century, by whom it was planted in Sirmien. The Tokay vineyards are known to have flourished in the thirteenth century; their great celebrity is,

however, said to have arisen after the destruction and neglect of the Sirmien vineyards, subsequently to the battle of Mohacs. The whole yearly produce of Hungary at present is, in favourable seasons, estimated at 18,000,000 eimers, and the land allotted to its growth at 851,690 jochs. The Sirmien wines are now again become valuable. The red wine from that country, called Schiller wine, is much esteemed. It is strong and sweet. They there likewise make small quantities of *Ausbruch*, and some of those preparations of wine called *Wermuth*, particularly two sorts, denominated *Palunia* and *Tropfwermuth*. The exact process of forming the latter is a secret; but the former is prepared by putting together fresh grapes, wormwood, bruised mustard-seed, and several spices, in layers, in a cask, pouring old wine over the whole, and closing the cask firmly. In afew weeks, the liquor is fit for use; but as it will not keep above a year at the utmost, though much esteemed, it seldom forms an article of commerce. In the neighbourhood of Peterwardein, in the same district, some vineyards, by the aid of much manure, have produced most surprising crops. On a space of 200 square klafters, (a measure which is called a motik, and which generally yields three or four eimers,)—in one instance, 25 eimers were obtained.

Amongst the wines of the Banat, those of Werschet, Weiskirchen, and Lugosch, are most esteemed. The Schiraker wine, which is produced in the Honther comitatus, is said to approach nearly to champagne.

Although Townson, in his travels in Hungary, has given a minute account of the mode in which the celebrated Tokay wine is manufactured, and a description of the same is to be found in the Philosophical Transactions, yet I have chosen to add in the Appendix an interesting account of the vineyards

of Ménes, which produce wines little inferior in excellence to that of Tokay, dwelling rather on the culture of the vine than the mode of preparing the juice.

The Germans, not content with procuring wine from the fresh grape, Ausbruch from the raisin, brandy from the skins, and syrup from the unfermented juice, have likewise attempted to supply themselves with *oil* from the *stone*. Dr Crell, in the year 1783, in his volume on New Chemical Discoveries, published an account of this produce, stating, that, from 100 pfunds of the stones, 10 mass of a useful oil might be obtained,—and several other authors, both in Germany and Italy, mention the same subject. The process consists simply in collecting the stones before the mass of skins has begun to ferment, drying them with care, and expressing the oil in a mill suited to the purpose. One of the earliest experimenters on this subject was a gentleman of the name of Lang, who instituted extensive trials on some estates in Styria, so that all the peasants supplied themselves with oil for their domestic purposes; and a calculation was made that Austria was capable of yielding of this oil, perfectly serviceable in all manufactures, and for burning, at least 515,982 pfunds, of which Hungary alone would furnish 425,845 pfunds. Like other calculations of this kind, however, the arithmetical result has not been confirmed by general experience.

From Badacson, we pursued our road to Szigliget, a little village built with the utmost irregularity upon the side of a rocky elevation, and inhabited by poor peasants, whose property is in the vineyards, and by one or two officers of the proprietor, who has a house here, but does not reside on the spot, and is, I think, a lady. We drove to the house of one of the less wealthy Hungarian nobles, who is steward on the

estate, and were received with the same hospitality we had uniformly experienced.

Although our arrival was quite unexpected, and the house seemed but little fitted to receive two strangers, yet it soon appeared, that the worthy inhabitants were too well accustomed to such surprises, to find any difficulty in providing for our accommodation. We passed the evening very pleasantly,—and, whilst my friend was conversing with his old acquaintance and his wife, about matters which concerned the domestic circle and the neighbourhood, I stole away for a short time to listen to the hoarse booming of the bitterns in the flat land below, and to observe the reflections of the numerous little fires, which the peasants had kindled along the banks of the Balaton lake, to assist them in ensnaring cray-fish.

Early in the morning we walked to the other side of the hill, to some vineyards which were under the care of our host, and to examine an alluvial cliff which hangs abruptly over the water, and in which a great variety of rolled masses, and much fossil wood, are found. The walk was delightful. The peasants were preparing the gentle slope of the hill for the growth of maize, and the vines were bursting into leaf.

On our return we visited several of the cottages, which, in spite of mean exterior and small dimensions, are neat within, and furnished with small stoves, somewhat of a pyramidal figure, built of square red tiles, concave in the middle. These are the usual materials of the common Hungarian stoves.

A very singular appearance in the rock which overhangs the house of our hospitable friend much attracted my notice. The mass of the hill seems to be of that tufa which I have already mentioned as occurring upon Badacson. This is exposed, both below the house and on the sides of the rock above, even to

the very summit, on which stands a ruined castle; and, at this upper part, in particular, it seems to be stratified.

Intersecting the mass, nearly in a perpendicular direction, and passing to the summit, is a *vein* several feet in width, resembling *greenstone*, well crystallized, and divided into horizontal columnar masses in its centre;—much more broken and less compact towards the edges,—and appearing at its junction to have produced a sensible effect upon the sand, by rendering it harder, and assimilating it in some degree to its own texture.

How far this may be connected with the appearances which I have mentioned upon the two insulated hills I visited before, and how far either of them may be the result of volcanic action, I leave others to determine;—observing only, that the distance is by no means great from the district of which we now speak, to that of Moor, where the inhabitants have lately suffered very severely from shocks of earthquakes, of which they had repeated returns every week during the last summer, and to which they are at all times subject. This circumstance should be kept in view in all reasoning upon the probable agents which have assisted in giving its present appearance to the country. That appearance is certainly remarkable;—the frequent occurrence of insulated mountains, capped with rocks of the greenstone family, bearing strongly the character of *lava*, and terminating abruptly on every side;—the foundation of this rocky stratum, generally a sandy tufa, containing within itself imbedded scoriæ; and this, in one case, divided by a dike much resembling that substance which, in the other cases, formed the mountain cap—the characters of this dike altered towards its junction with the tufa which it intersects, and that tufa much more compact near the junction:—do not all these features suggest

some probable conjectures as to the origin of these mountains, and lead us at least to acknowledge the probability, that they are the remaining fragments of an elevated volcanic plain, which the convulsions of nature, and the gradually consuming hand of time, labouring through uncounted ages, have swept away, or mouldered into dust?

When we left Szigliget, our host became our companion in the carriage, as he wished to conduct us to a vineyard on Sz-Gyorgay hegye, a hill very celebrated for its wine, which lay but little out of our road. We here found a small summer-house, with a terrace, from which the view of the lake was beautiful. No picture could be more splendidly gay than that part of the landscape which intervened between us and the water. It was a gentle slope, covered with vineyards; and the soft downy green of the young vine shoots, mixed with the pure white of the plum and cherry blossoms, and the rich red of the peaches, which are very abundant in all the vineyards, formed a scene of brilliancy scarcely surpassed by the beauties of the vintage. Our conductor presented us with a flask of his best draught wine, over which he narrated all the joys of autumn, when every corner of the summer-house is filled with guests, who come from the villages and country round to partake of the cheerfulness of wine-gathering. Here, taking leave of our kind friend, we turned our horses towards Keszthely.

CHAPTER IX.

Breeding Stud.—Balaton Lake.—National Dance.—Keresztúr.—Fishery.—Buffaloes.—Administration of Justice.—Prisons.—Warm Spring of Heviz.—Mineral Waters in Hungary.—Hospital.—Tortoises.—Wild Boars.

On returning to Keszthely we found the whole space before the Graf's house occupied by ranks of peasants' waggons, filled with military baggage and provisions. Of these there were at least fifty, with as many peasants to conduct them, and each drawn by two or four oxen. They had taken up their station for the night, and were preparing their bivouac. Such cavalcades are met in every direction upon the roads of Hun-

gary. Long habit seems to have rendered the peasants insensible to the hardship of such oppressive service. The perfect cheerfulness with which they discharge this duty, has often struck me with surprise; they consider it as a part of their lot, and are resigned.

Early in the morning, the peasants and their waggons were again upon the road. I saw them all file off under my window, and then enjoyed my usual morning's amusement in watching the manœuvres of the Graf's horses in the extensive square *manège*, of which I had a full view. A low range of buildings, partly occupied by the officers of the estate, formed one boundary of the picture; a tower, the remnant of a church, which workmen were in the act of pulling down, formed the other; and the Balaton, together with a ridge of limestone hills, occupied the distance.

This was a memorable day in the annals of the stud of Keszthely. It was marked by the arrival of two Arabian stallions, just purchased from Trieste by Graf Ladislaus Festetits. When these new comers had sufficiently received our admiration, the Graf took me in his hunting-carriage, a kind of low strong-built sociable, to see his breeding horses at a farm not far distant. It is amusing to observe with what respect the Graf is saluted as he passes through the crowds, not only of his own dependents, but of such even as are assembled, on the market-day, and with what affability he returns their salutes. Not a head remains uncovered; and the constant bowing which goes on from both sides, would lead a stranger to suppose that it was the favourite candidate at an English county election who passed, rather than the hereditary and arbitrary lord of the surrounding district.

The stud which we visited was numerous; and much care had been taken to improve the breed, by introducing Arabian

blood, selecting the best colts and mares, and disposing of the less valuable by sale. The chief groom, a rough peasant, shewed many feats of strength and agility, standing in the midst of the most fiery and untamed horses, with an intrepidity which he had inherited from four generations of ancestors, who had all filled the post of danger to which he is now promoted.

From the farm we drove past a Roman encampment on our way to the lake, where we found a boat with six rowers in Venetian costume, waiting to convey us on board the vessel which the Graf calls his frigate, being by far the largest, and, indeed, almost the only vessel with sails upon this fresh water sea. It is a large sloop, and is sometimes employed for excursions of pleasure, and sometimes as a vessel of burden, to bring salt from the farther end of the lake. The flatness of its bottom is not well calculated for sailing, but this construction is absolutely necessary on account of the shallowness of the water. The usual navigation, if it may be so called, upon this lake, is in a clumsy species of canoe, made from a single tree, and seldom fitted to contain more than one person. These are called, on account of their insecurity, *seel trinkers*, or *soul swallowers;* yet the fishermen often venture to cross the water in them at its widest parts.

The *Balaton*, or *Platten-See*, is a fine lake. Its shores are, in general, but little elevated, though in some parts, particularly about Tihany, they are precipitous. Its length is calculated at 40,000 klafters, (45 English miles,) and its width varies from 3000 to 8000, ($3\frac{1}{2}$ to 9 English miles.) Its depth is generally trifling, being, at its deepest parts, which are near Tihany, not above 27 feet. It is surrounded by much marshy ground, which, from want of elevation, is scarcely capable of being drained. A project has, however, been started, of deepening

the middle of the lake, to render it more navigable, and to unite it with the Danube; by which means, should it be carried into execution, its height will probably be so much diminished, as to give an opportunity of reclaiming the marshes, which are calculated to occupy nearly 130,000 joch of land. The river which chiefly supplies it is the Szala. It abounds in fine fish, amongst which are the *Perca lucioperca*, or *Fogas*, the *Cyprinus cultratus*, the *Cyprinus carpio*, or common carp, and the *Esox lucius*, or pike. The shores are frequented by many birds, the white pelican, *Pelecanus onocrotalus*, the bittern, *Ardea stellaris*, the coot, *Fulica atra*, the snipe and jack-snipe, *Scolopax gallinago*, and *S. gallinula*, and a variety of ducks; these, however, are more numerous to the south, and in Sclavonia, where, when the crop of acorns is good, they arrive in great numbers, and are intercepted by nets placed between the rivers and the surrounding oak forests, and thus taken in multitudes. The otter is frequent on the shores, and some even assert that the beaver has been found in this lake, but if that be the case it is very rare. Some instances of the occurrence of this animal in Hungary, seemingly well authenticated, are collected by Grossinger in his Natural History.

The Balaton Lake is said to have been mentioned by the Romans under the name of *Hiulca*, and the encampment which we passed to have been near the site of *Cibalis*. The accuracy of these conjectures is most justly doubted; but the Roman remains which have been discovered prove, beyond all doubt, that the district was known and colonized by that people.

Returning from the water, we stopped at a small house, the residence of the man who rents the ferry from the Graf. Here a *dejeuné* had been prepared, that I might have an opportunity of tasting the fish of the lake, particularly the *Fogas*, in all its

perfection; and the delicacy of our repast was completed by wines sent from the cellar of Keszthely.

In the afternoon we visited the forest school, and also the school for music. I was here treated with some excellent musical performances by a large band of pensioners, some of whom belonged to the forest school. After this I called, with Professor Liebald, upon the officer on the recruiting service, whom I had met at the Graf's table, to request he would indulge me with a dance performed by his recruiting party; but, unfortunately, they were gone to another town. I was sorry to have missed the opportunity of seeing this national exhibition in perfection. The performers are dressed in rich clothes, in order to excite the ardour of the young men, and induce them to enter the military service. The dance begins in slow and measured steps, but, as it proceeds, becomes more energetic with every movement. The performers clap their hands, strike them upon their boots, or bring their heels violently together, until at length even the peasants (amongst whom alone I have witnessed it) become warmed to enthusiasm; but the soldiers, I am told, who add something for the sake of effect, seem driven almost to insanity, not ceasing till their spurs are shattered in pieces, and themselves almost overpowered by fatigue.

At supper, the Graf, whose greatest wish seemed to be that he might lengthen out the period of his hospitality, and supply me constantly with objects of interest, inquired what were my plans for the following day, and as I expressed a desire to visit the farm where he keeps his herd of buffaloes, it was agreed that the Prefect's four horses should be put into the carriage, and that I should be accompanied to Keresztúr by the Rent Meister, who could explain every thing. Accordingly, at seven o'clock the following morning we set off, and soon reached the ferry by which we were to cross the lake. We here found four very

good boats, which are continually passing. Several little waggons had just landed from one of them, and others crossed with us. It is from the peasants and the merchants alone that the person who rents a ferry can be remunerated. No man of condition, that is, no nobleman, can be called upon to pay, nor are his waggons and teams liable; and all military men are of course free. The passage occupied about an hour, the latter half of which, conducted us along a tract cut, or rather kept open, through the reeds, by the constant passing of the ferry boat. It had all the appearance of a canal. We observed several fishermen in their canoes forcing their way amongst the reeds to examine their snares. They have a method of constructing a labyrinth, with thin hedges of reeds, in which the small fish become entangled, and fall an easy prey. They also set conical baskets for fish, resembling those employed in our own rivers. The chief fishery is carried on in the winter, when they break successive holes in the ice, forming a large triangle; then introduce a seine net at one of the angles, and pass it along the whole base by means of the holes which are ranged on that line; draw the two ends together at the apex, and thus frequently take large quantities of fish. The right of fishing belongs to the proprietor of the land, but each peasant may purchase permission for a small sum, which affords a cheap addition to his means of subsistence.

We landed on the property of the Graf, and drove over good meadow land, through a village, characteristic of this part of Hungary; the houses of clay, not regularly thatched, but covered with straw, held down by poles laid upon it. The inclosures round the houses and yards are formed of reeds, and the village-bell is raised upon a pole, in a case like a pigeon-house. We then passed through a most beautiful country, with vineyards on both sides, full of fruit-

trees in blossom ; the lake, and the hills on the opposite bank, upon some of whose summits I had already been, were seen in the distance. These vineyards are the property of Graf Hunyadi, and the hedges which he has planted give the country a more grateful appearance to an English eye. The peasants were employed in laying open the roots of their vines to the sun.

In about an hour, we reached Keresztúr, an ancient residence of the family of Festetits, situated close to the margin of the lake. The buffaloes, which formed the principal object of my visit, were introduced on this estate by the grandfather of the present Graf. The Graf had formerly four herds, but they have not been found very profitable or useful excepting on this estate, which is peculiarly fitted for them, on account of its marshy grounds ; for the buffalo is never more happy than when plunged up to the neck in water, where he delights to feed on rushes and coarse grass. The herd at Keresztúr, at present, consists of about 45 females, 15 calves, and a few bulls. The milk which they yield is rich, but light, and somewhat like the milk of the ass. The cheese made from it is not disagreeable. These animals are remarkably strong, and somewhat difficult to manage, becoming very unruly when in sight of water. A pair of oxen of this breed once swam across the Balaton, at a place where it was at least half a mile broad, dragging after them an empty waggon. The Graf sometimes employs them for a very singular purpose. A hot spring occurs near Keszthely, supplying a tepid lake, from which a canal runs, but the vegetation and the deposit is there so rapid, that it is often in danger of being choked up, in which event the water would overflow a very large adjoining meadow. For some time it was a source of great labour and difficulty to keep this canal clear; but now no-

thing more is done, than to send the buffaloes into it, who walk backwards and forwards, and thus tear up or trample down every thing, which, in process of time, would fill up the channel. The buffalo dairy is entrusted to a herdsman, who being provided by the Graf with pasturage and fodder, is obliged to pay annually 20 pfunds of butter, boiled down and skimmed, (known under the name of *schmalz*,) for each cow, all the surplus is his own property. The flesh of the calves is said to be good, and even that of the old cattle is sold as beef, but is very indifferent.

These animals, originally the inhabitants of warmer regions, are completely naturalized in Hungary and Turkey, and, though by no means commonly kept as part of the farming stock, are stated to amount to 70,000 in Hungary and Transylvania. Bredetzky, who casually mentions them as being very valuable for their skins, employed at Rhonasech in forming the bags in which salt is raised from the mines, speaks of their ferocity, and the difficulty of killing them, in terms which would almost lead us to suppose them to be in that district in a state of nature. "The operation of shooting the buffalo," he observes, "is curious, but very dangerous, for in no other way, on account of their wildness, can they be obtained. It is not possible to kill them with an axe like other cattle. They are first driven with great care from the enclosure in which they have been kept, and a shot is levelled, by a person concealed, exactly at the forehead; if, unfortunately, the aim is missed, the animal immediately flies with the most tremendous fury, so swiftly, that the dogs can scarcely overtake him, and any one who stands in his way is inevitably killed." Ferocity like this is certainly not the general character of the Hungarian buffalo, which, on ordinary occasions, is obedient to the voice of its driver, with almost

the same docility as the common ox; shewing, however, the remains of its savage disposition when intentionally irritated. The characteristic appearance of the animal is but badly preserved in the great majority of figures to which I have had occasion to refer. The most faithful likeness is that given by Jonston in his Quadrupeds, Tab. xxi. of the Amsterdam edition, 1657. *Bubuli juvenci* is the title he has given them, and the engraving, as well as the drawing, does considerable honour to the artist. The manner of carrying the head and neck are here admirably represented, but the contour of the body is perhaps rather too light; for, in nature, every limb of the animal indicates unusual strength, a circumstance which is best marked in that noble memorial of an art which is now somewhat reviving both in England and in Germany, the *Triumph of the Emperor Maximilian*, where Hans Burgmair, in the 19th cut, has given to these animals the firmness and strength which are their natural attributes. A variety of the buffalo, completely white, was introduced into Transylvania, as it is stated, from Egypt, about the year 1764, and of these I saw several specimens in the Imperial Menagerie, at Schönbrun. Their form is nearly the same as that of the black species, but they are not so strongly made, and are more thickly covered with hair.

The land which forms the shore of the Balaton at Keresztúr is quite alluvial, and affords much appearance of coal, but it is the brown coal, only partially bituminized. The Ludus Helmontii is frequent here, and I found magnetic iron sand, of which much more occurs in some parts of the lake. Just as we were about to sit down to dinner, with the Hofrichter and his wife and children, a letter was brought from the comitatus assembly of the next county, requesting my host to appear and give testimony against a robber who had been

taken, and was supposed to be the same who, some weeks before, had stolen his pigs. But he said as there was one of his *Bauers* who had likewise been robbed, and who had nothing else to do, he should make him go in his place. This brought on a conversation respecting the prevalence of robberies, and every one lamented the unrestrained wickedness of the peasants, to which class most of the banditti belonged; and I understood, that even those who seemed to live honestly, were often more or less connected with these marauders,—frequently joining them for a time in the forest, and then returning to their families; and, on the other hand, it was no uncommon thing for robbers to visit the peasants' houses, demand food and drink, and depart without otherwise molesting them. It is not difficult to perceive how this arises from the circumstances in which the peasants are placed. The father of a family has the portion of land allotted to a peasant, but the son, during his father's lifetime, has no property, nor does he easily find employment even when industriously inclined, for the landlord can usually get labour enough from his own peasants, either by obligation, or on paying the trifling sum of ten or twelve kreutzers a day; the sons, therefore, finding it difficult to obtain work, engage as the servants of other peasants, where the pay is very small, and in a season of want they are dismissed. Again, many are constantly employed during the summer in tending the sheep and swine, which are turned into the forests to feed. Here they become inured to hardships and withdrawn from observation; and if temptation come, whether it be to steal cattle, to rob a traveller, or to plunder a dwelling-house, they too often yield.

Their miserable want of education acts as a powerful accessory, and of this my host, and the whole party, appeared sensible. I was told that, in this village, there were not fewer than

forty fathers of families, not one individual of whom could read. The village schools, established by the Emperor Joseph, are still maintained, and the rising generation begins to derive some advantage from them; yet as the children only attend in the winter, and then but irregularly, and neither the clergy, nor the landlords in general, seem anxious to improve the minds of the peasantry, little care is taken to form good arrangements, or to enforce the attendance of the masters. Education, therefore, seldom proceeds beyond the first elements of reading and writing. Another cause of the frequency of robberies may be found in a bad police. The difficulty of establishing an efficient police is great, where extensive forests exist, but is still increased where they belong to different counties or separate lords, who rarely act in unison; and where each territory is so small as of itself to be incapable of sustaining the expence of establishments sufficient for the purposes of security.

The character of the peasant of the Schümegher comitatus is so well understood by all who have attended to the subject, that it has been described in nearly the same terms by every Hungarian traveller who has delineated the peculiarities of his own country. "A very marked feature in the character of the Hungarian peasant," says one author, "is the love of indolence; and, as far as I can learn, the observation is particularly applicable to this district of the country. This, and the savage life to which the people are here accustomed, when pasturing their cattle in the forests, are probably the great causes of the frequent robberies which occur. Robbers by profession, subsisting entirely on the fruits of their depredations, abound indeed; but by far the greater number are cattle-keepers, under the various names of *Tsikos*, *Gulyas*, *Juhász*, or *Kanász*. The latter are particularly notorious, and amongst them you will scarcely find one who is worthy of trust. The

herdsmen are usually mere thieves, stealing cattle when they are able; but if a good opportunity of plundering a traveller offers itself, they seldom suffer it to pass. Those, on the contrary, who have no other occupation but to seek for booty, and live constantly in the forest, steal cattle only when driven by necesssity; the plunder of the traveller, whom they frequently murder, is their principal occupation. Jews and butchers are chiefly exposed to their attacks; the officers of the crown and of the nobles are safe, from a dread of the inquiry which, in such cases, would certainly be instituted. They generally hail a carriage by a demand of money, styling themselves *szegény legeny*, or poor fellows. The little secluded public houses suffer much from them, as, when they can get nothing elsewhere, they enter them, and eat and drink without paying. Such houses are, on this account, very unsafe, and the more so, because the innkeepers are frequently in league with the robbers, either as receivers or accomplices. In order to put a stop to this evil, pursuits are often instituted by the comitatus, when some of the offenders are generally taken; but the extent of the comitatus, and the insufficient strength of their police, are causes which will probably leave the completion of the work to future generations. It is not only the Schümegher comitatus, but the Szalader, and many others, in which these robbers are found."

It may not be here out of place to make a short digression on the important subject of the mode of administering criminal justice in Hungary, which appears to have an immediate connection with the matter now before us. In slight offences, rather against good order than against law, the Hofrichter may at all times punish a peasant with stripes, and is provided for that purpose with a machine like a low table, on which the culprit lies, with two iron cramps at one end for confining the

wrists, two at the other for securing the ancles, and a larger one in the middle which passes over the back. The culprit being stretched out in this helpless situation, stripes, to a certain number, are inflicted on his naked back with a stick.

If a notorious robber be taken in the act, he may be immediately put to death. If, however, the case be not so clear, and the man suspected is a peasant, he is brought before the fiscal, who enters into an examination, of which one great object is, to obtain a confession from the accused. In the failure of persuasive means, the culprit is laid upon the table, and stripes are inflicted. If he prove obstinate, and there is still room for suspicion, he is remanded for farther examination; and if, after occasional repetition, during several weeks, of this mode of investigation, nothing transpires strong enough to commit the prisoner, he is set at liberty. If, however, on the contrary, it should appear from witnesses, or confession, that there is strong presumption of guilt, the man is detained for trial. If the value of the thing stolen be under twenty-five florins, the fiscal is himself judge, and may immediately order punishment, extending to confinement and stripes. But, if it be a matter of greater importance, the accused must be tried before a court, called the *Herren Stuhl.* For this purpose, the fiscal calls together, by summons, a few respectable freemen, one of whom is nominated the president; also the officer of the comitatus, chosen every three years by the nobles alone, called the *Stuhl-richter*, attends, and two assessors from the comitatus, who come rather as witnesses of the transaction, than as active members of the court, having no voice in the conviction of the accused. The others have each a vote; and the cause is determined by a majority, the president having a casting voice.

Previously to the assembling of the court, the fiscal makes

out a statement of the case, with an abstract of all which has come to light during the private examinations. The fiscal then writes down the arguments for finding the prisoner guilty; and a second fiscal, if there be one, or some other person, draws up the arguments which may be advanced in his favour; but what was my astonishment, on hearing from one of these officers, that, as there was no one besides himself, he was frequently under the necessity of arguing the case on both sides! The whole is committed to paper in Latin. When the court assembles, the accused is brought up, and his accusation, together with the deposition of the witnesses, is read to him in Hungarian. He then retires, and the address or pleading of the fiscal on each side of the question is read. The matter is now discussed, and put to the vote, and the prisoner is again called in to hear his sentence. During the whole of this process, the doors are closed; and I shall long remember the marked surprise with which a fiscal heard my inquiry, whether the peasants were not admitted to hear some parts at least of the proceeding. The written document is very brief. I saw two or three of them during my stay in the country, where the entire accusation, testimonies, and pleadings, pro and con, were contained on one closely written sheet of paper. It is quite at the option of the lord, when he will summon a *Herren Stuhl*, which he usually defers to suit his own convenience, as the expences fall entirely upon the estate. Upon a review of this court of justice, we perceive that it is liable, at every step, to be perverted from its purpose, to be bought by money, to be swayed by favour, to be misled by imperfect information. The fiscal is the servant of the magnat. All the persons living within the sphere of a magnat's influence, either respect him, court him, fear him, or hate him. Very often one magnat is proprietor of a whole comitatus; and then how slight a restraint is

placed upon his proceedings by the presence of any person living within its circuit! Besides this, no one can remain long in Hungary, without seeing that all who are in stations superior to the peasant look on him with contempt, mingled with suspicion and dread. The legislature has, however, happily provided in some degree against the evils which might result from such a jurisdiction, if endowed with the power of inflicting death, by requiring that all capital punishments shall receive the sanction of the higher courts, and shall then be laid before the king for his approval.

From the judgment of the *Herren Stuhl*, in many cases, appeal is made to the courts of the comitatus, in which the Vicegespann, an officer elected every third year by the nobles themselves, presides. But, in other cases, the matter must be brought before the court called the *Districtuel Tafel*, of which there are four, held at Tyrnau, Güns, Eperies, and Debretzin. From each of these appeal may next be made to the Royal Court (or *Königliche Tafel*) held at Ofen, at which the *Personalis Præsentiæ Regiæ* presides, and in which two prelates, together with the vice-palatine, the vice-judex curiæ regiæ, four landrichters, and six other members, form a quorum. From the decision here given, appeal may farther be made to the *Septemviral Tafel*, likewise held at Ofen, formerly composed of seven members, but at which the presence of at least eleven is now required. The president is the *Palatine*, and the other members of the court are two archbishops, three titular bishops, six magnats, nine other nobles, and an officer on the part of the mines. And, finally, from this highest court, appeal may be made to the mercy of the King.

There seem to be occasions upon which the *Herren Stuhl* takes to itself the right, if it be not granted by law, of inflicting even capital punishment immediately; but of this I am

uncertain, though some instances of speedy execution which came to my knowledge, left that impression upon my mind. Capital punishment, however, is rarely inflicted in Hungary, and Professor Ludwig Fabrici, writing on this subject, from Croatia in 1807, observes, that, in the preceding year, no capital punishment had taken place in the Bacser Agramer Eisenburger, or Szalader comitatus; and this is far from being an uncommon circumstance in most of the counties of Hungary and Croatia.

The place chosen for the confinement of prisoners is usually close adjoining, or forming a part of the dwelling of the lord; and as they are generally employed in labour, the traveller seldom approaches the house of a Hungarian noble, who possesses the Jus Gladii, without being shocked by the clanking of chains, and the exhibition of these objects of misery loaded with irons. The prison itself is never concealed from the curiosity of strangers; I should almost say that it is considered a boast,—a kind of badge of the power which the lord possesses. One of the best I saw was at Keszthely. It forms an insignificant part of a large low building, immediately opposite to the entrance of the castle, in which are the residences of several inferior officers of the estate. Under the guidance of the keeper of the prison I entered by a door well barred and bolted. Instantly seventeen figures, all in the long Hungarian cloak, rose from the ground on which they were sitting. Besides themselves, the room, which was not above twelve feet square, presented no one object: no table, bed, or chair. It was ventilated and lighted by several small grated windows, high up in the side of the walls. The prisoners were most of them young men; some had been tried, others had not, and some had been confined seven or eight years. Their crimes were very different, but no difference was

made in the mode of treating them, excepting as to the number of lashes they were to receive at stated times, or the number of years they were to be imprisoned. Such was their residence during the day-time, when they did not go out to work. We next proceeded to the dungeon in which they are confined during the night, the jailor taking the precaution to disguise unpleasant smells, by carrying a fumigating pot before us. On opening an inner door,we entered a small room, in the corner of which lay two women on beds of straw. In the middle of the floor was an iron grate. This being opened by my guide, he descended first, by means of a ladder, with a lamp in his hand, by the light of which I perceived that we were in a small antichamber, or cell, from which a door opened into the dungeon, the usual sleeping-place of all the male prisoners. It was a small oblong vaulted cave, in which the only furniture was two straw mattrasses. A few ragged articles of dress lay near the place where each prisoner was accustomed to rest upon the naked floor. In one corner of the room was a large strong chain, and at about a foot and a half from the ground, round the whole vault, were rings let into the wall. The prisoners at night, having laid themselves upon the ground, the chain is put through the irons which confine the ancles of three of them, and is passed into a ring in the wall, it is then attached to three more, and is passed through a second ring, and continued in this way till the complete circuit of the room is made. The ends of the chain are fastened together by a padlock, by which the whole is firmly secured. It was painful to reflect, that in this state some of these wretches had already passed their nights during seven years. In speaking thus freely of the prisons of the Hungarian chieftains, I mingle with my feelings as little inclination to censure them as possible. I consider them as affording a remarkable example of one of the most

common of all incidents, the aptness of the human mind to view with indifference objects that are constantly presented to it. In conversation with foreigners, how many things do we hear respecting our own customs, of which, at first, we are almost inclined to question the existence; and how unconsciously may the eyes of an Hungarian nobleman be closed, with respect to many important circumstances in the situation of the great mass of the inhabitants of his country, from whom, under a change of system, that country might derive additional security and happiness, and the proprietor an enormous increase of power and wealth.

I cannot leave this subject without availing myself of a valuable English publication, for which we are indebted to the labours of a "Society for diffusing information on the subject of capital punishment and prison discipline." It is a passage which will illustrate the force of habit, and the evils which creep in, rather from want of attention than depravity of feeling; and while it records the late, but effectual reform of some abuses, may point the way to similar improvements, both in our own country, and in others which are conscious of errors like our own.

"In Howard's description of his visit to the gaol at Warwick, he says, The night-room of the felons is an octagonal dungeon, about twenty-one feet in diameter, down thirty-one steps, damp and offensive: the gaoler on going down took a preservative. The justices have taken the Gaol and Bridewell into consideration. May it not be hoped that gentlemen so considerate will not continue this damp and offensive place, which has only one aperture, level with the court, three feet in diameter?

"Such was the mild language in which Howard appealed to

the benevolence of the county, in behalf of these unfortunate prisoners.

" This offensive vault, which now may be seen in the prison, is eighteen feet ten inches under ground. In the middle is a cess-pool for the necessities of nature; on the side is a stream for the prisoners to slake their thirst. There is a large heavy chain now in the dungeon, that passed through a link in the chain of each of the felons, which was then carried up the steps, and secured outside the vault. The only light and air is through an iron-grate on the top. Within this place, forty-five prisoners have sometimes been confined. Until the year 1797, this vault continued to be the night-room of the different felons; and to this species of interment the present humane gaoler of the excellent and improving gaol at Warwick was doomed nightly to consign the felons.—What misery exists, solely because it is unknown! In the year 1797 a committee of the House of Commons reported, that in Horsham gaol, in the very heart of one of the most opulent counties in England, a woman died, after having been imprisoned for forty-five years, for a debt of L. 19!—In the year 1797, this dungeon existed in Warwick gaol, when every heart beat with anguish at the sad spectacle of the never-to-be-forgotten slave ship!

" In the year 1815, when I am now writing, there seems to be a pit of the same nature, in constant use, in the gaol of the opulent commercial city of Bristol. Howard, in his visit to the Bristol gaol, says, ' Their dungeon, the pit, down eighteen steps, is about eighteen feet by seventeen, and nine high. Barrack bedsteads; no bedding, nor straw. It is close and offensive; only a small window.'

" Mr Neild, in his description of this cell, says, ' Their dungeon, the pit, by which you descend by eighteen steps, is seventeen feet in diameter, and eight feet six inches

high. It has barrack bedsteads, with beds of straw in canvas: and some benevolent gentlemen of the city occasionally send a few rugs. This dreary place is close and offensive, with only a very small window, whose light is merely sufficient to make darkness visible. In the year 1801, I remember, it was chiefly appropriated to convicts under sentence of transportation. Seventeen prisoners are said to have slept here every night. The turnkey himself told me, 'that in a morning, when he unlocked the door, he was so affected by the putrid steam issuing from the dungeon, that it was enough to strike him down.' At my visit, 4th October 1803, it so happened that only one man slept there. In March 1813, four physicians at Bristol wrote to the sheriff, in answer to some inquiries respecting their opinion, how far the gaol was adapted to the preservation of the health of the prisoners. They say, 'We could not fail to remark, that the only aperture, for the admission of air and light to almost the whole of their apartments, is a small well-like court, surrounded on all sides by the walls of a three-story building, and grated over at top. Nor must it be forgotten, that they are all considerably below the level of the street; and one of them (the pit) must approach the level of the river Frome.

"The number of prisoners for felonies is usually so great, that they are necessarily crowded together by night, to such a degree, as to excite surprise that they should escape suffocation. In one room, the pit, which is a vaulted cellar, of about fourteen feet square, by about eight feet high to the crown of the arch—in this dismal place, where scarcely a ray of light enters, and where the ventilation is very imperfect indeed,—not less than seventeen of these wretched beings at present sleep.' In April 1813, this prison was presented by the grand jury; but it still exists."——

" In the year 1813, I visited the gaol at Warwick. The keeper conducted me, in some triumph, into the offensive vault. He then accompanied me through the prison, which was, as it now is, healthy and clean: the felons' yard spacious and dry; and their separate night-rooms, above stairs, sweet and airy.

" Sensible of this improvement, I yet saw, with great regret, that the felons were all herding together in large parties, without any employment; and, although well behaved when we were in the yard, it was easy to conceive the vice which must exist when they were no longer under the eye of the keeper; and it was painful to see the certain corruption of the children doomed to associate with the most hardened offenders.

" In October 1815, I again visited the gaol; and a more interesting scene I never witnessed. The prison is now divided into two parts; the one appropriated to adults, the other to children. They are wholly separated. Instead of lewd conversation, blasphemy, and the dangerous repetition of contrivances to do ill, the children are now improved in habits of industry, and hear only lessons of virtue and religion. When I entered their apartment, I heard no noise, but the buzzing of a manufactory; and saw their little countenances, not depressed and degraded, but placid and cheerful. Mr Tatnal had selected an employment suitable for every person. He had procured, from Birmingham, pins to be headed, and in this occupation they were all actively employed. The boys, on an average, earn about two shillings per week, but when they first begin, from eightpence to one shilling. One quarter of their earnings is paid to them weekly, another quarter is kept till they are liberated, and the remaining half is applied in payment of expences.

" This improvement in the gaol is not confined to the manufactory. Under the superintendence of the county magistrates,

a school has been formed for the children; and many of the boys, who knew not a letter when they entered the gaol, are now able to read. At my request, the labours of the manufactory were, for a few minutes, suspended. I had the satisfaction to hear the children read and repeat their lessons, and to witness the good effects which must result from the exertions of Mrs Tatnal, to whom the county magistrates, who kindly superintend the school, and render all the assistance in their power, have presented a piece of plate, expressive of their approbation of her attention to these once unfortunate children."

As the evening approached, I returned to Keszthely, where I was well pleased to find myself safely arrived, after encountering a storm upon the lake, an adventure which nearly ended in our passing the night in a wilderness of reeds. During this dilemma, we saw the whole country to our left in a blaze; it was a large tract of marshy land, which had been set on fire to consume the coarse and luxuriant vegetation; a very common practice, and one which, in the extensive marshes of the Békeser comitatus, has sometimes been attended with danger, from the extent of the fire, which has been known to continue burning for more than a week.

The hospitality of the Graf's supper-table, and the interest of his conversation, soon dispelled the remembrance of our perils. It may be truly said, that the character of these meals was hospitality and abundance, without unnecessary or irksome parade. The Graf was always, both at table and in his excursions in the carriage, attended by two young men, dressed as Hussars without arms; and, besides these, three or four servants, out of livery, generally served at the table. The conversation was always instructive, full of good temper, and enlarged views on the part of my host. Before we parted in the even-

ing, he planned another excursion for me on the following day, when I was put under the guidance of Dr Gerrard, the family-physician, a man of extensive learning, and acquainted with no less than eleven languages, to visit the warm-baths in the neighbourhood, which are at the distance of about two miles, near the source of the river Heviz. As a bathing place, it is little worthy of mention, and is evidently fitted up by the Graf only for the lower class of people, who come there during the summer, and find a surgeon on the spot ready to administer their favourite remedy of scarification or cupping. The only dwelling is a miserable house, converted into an inn during the summer, and affording very mean accommodation. As a hot-spring, however, it is curious, from the quantity of heated sulphureous water which it discharges in the middle of a low and marshy plain, in which it has formed a pond. This covers a space of not much less than two acres, and the water which runs from it, turns in its course two or three mills. I cannot speak exactly to its temperature, but it is very considerable, even in the canal by which it discharges itself. The water emits a strong sulphureous vapour, and is of a bluish colour. The *Nymphæa alba* was in fine bloom, and a multitude of a species of *cyprinus* were playing about, appearing greatly to enjoy the warmth of the water.

The mineral springs which occur in all parts of Hungary form a leading feature in the natural history of the country. They are particularly numerous in the northern districts, and in the Saroser comitatus alone, above seventy-two are mentioned on authority. Of their whole amount I am uncertain; a work published forty years ago mentions two hundred and thirty of them, but many more are known, several of which have now been accurately analyzed by different experimentalists. In this research, as in every thing connected with the na-

tural history of his country, Professor Kitaibel has distinguished himself. These springs are of various qualities; some are hot, and others cold and acidulous. Of the former, the most remarkable are at Pesth, Grosswardein, and Lutschka; of the latter, the most celebrated are those of Bartfeld, Neulublau, Szalatnya, and Füred, which is on the banks of the Balaton Lake, and is one of the most frequented places of this kind in Hungary, and the waters are likewise sent in every direction through the kingdom.

On returning to Keszthely, I saw the hospital, which is rather a poor-house, than an institution for the cure of the sick. It is managed with much attention, and the inmates receive many little conveniences, and even luxuries, from the pious offerings of persons in humble life, who, from religious motives, and for the fulfilment of vows, bring gifts according to their means.

In the evening I was taken to see another object of curiosity,—the garden kept for the rearing and preservation of land tortoises. The *Testudo orbicularis* is the species most common about the lake, and the river Szala, which falls into it. Tortoises likewise occur in great numbers in various parts of Hungary, more particularly about Füzes-Gyarmath, and the marshes of the river Theiss; and, being deemed a delicacy for the table, are caught and kept in preserves. That of Keszthely incloses about an acre of land, intersected by trenches and ponds, in which the animals feed and enjoy themselves. In one corner was a space separated from the rest by boards two feet high, forming a pen for snails, which here, as well as in Germany, are in request as an article of food. The upper edge of the boards was spiked with nails an inch in height, and at intervals of half an inch, over which, I was assured, these animals never attempt to make their way. This

snail, the *Helix pomatia*, is in great demand in Vienna, where sacks of them are regularly exposed to sale in the market, alternating with sacks of beans, lentils, kidney-beans, and truffles.

This afternoon was likewise spent in conversation with the Graf, whose stores of information are unbounded, and who was better acquainted with the modern politics of our island than I was. I particularly remember his expressions of surprise, that, in a country advanced in civilization as England is represented to be, so many capital punishments should be necessary, and that mere boys should frequently become victims of the laws.

At six o'clock the next morning, the hunting carriage with four horses, and the *Ober Jäger*, or chief ranger, were again at the door to carry me into the forest, that I might see the preserve of wild boars, and some other objects of novelty. We passed along a valley which separates a portion of the forest reserved for fuel, from that which is kept for timber. The former of these is divided into thirty-two parts, of which one is cut every year, care being taken to leave a supply of young trees for store. The other division is subdivided into two hundred and fifty parts, also cut annually, thus giving time for the young trees that are left to come to perfection. The chief timber trees are the *Quercus robur*, *cerris*, and *pubescens*, besides, however, many others; for a collection of seeds, at the house of the forest-master, contained above a hundred species, though of these many were indeed rather of shrubs than of timber trees.

The whole extent of the forest is, I think, about 36,000 joch. In a country where there is a superabundance of timber, the forests cannot be very regularly cut; as far as the demand permits, however, it is here done. Fire-wood constitutes one part of the peasant's rights, and for this purpose each peasant is usually permitted to take two small waggon loads, equal to one klafter of wood, which he cuts with a hatchet, every week

during the five winter months; in the summer he is allowed only such wood as he can break away without a hatchet. But no peasant can take wood without producing an order signed by the court of direction at Keszthely, when the forest-master, who lives in the forest, sends a person to point out where the wood may be cut. We had to pass through a thick part of the forest before we reached the residence of the forest-master, which is most superbly situated. It is on an elevation at the edge of a small park stocked with deer, the park being nothing more than a space cleared on a declivity within the forest, which surrounds it in all directions, clothing most beautifully the sides and summits of the neighbouring hills, whose tops are embellished by the castles of Rezi and Tatika, both of which are connected with historical recollections in the mind of the Hungarian.

We here added the forest-master to our party, and proceeded more deeply into the forest, till, in about an hour, we saw the herd of wild boars feeding amongst the trees. It must be confessed that these animals have lost a little of their natural ferocity, by being accustomed to come together every night at a certain place, where their young are kept, to be fed; besides which, two keepers are constantly with them as they rove in the forest. On the approach of strangers, however, they fly, and in their form, colour, and even habits, still preserve the character of the true wild breed, from which they are descended without any intermixture. I am told the flesh has all the peculiar flavour of the boar quite undomesticated. This animal, in a completely savage state, is now become very rare in Hungary, and is only found in the most secluded forests, and in the recesses of the Carpathian mountains.

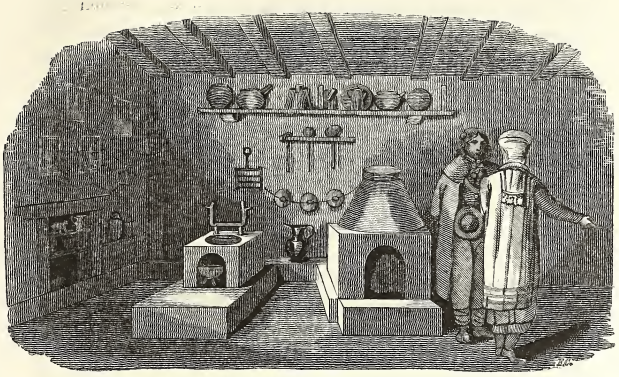
During this excursion, as on many other occasions, I did my best to verify an assertion which I heard from more than one good botanist in Hungary, that the misseltoe, *Viscum album*, fixes itself upon the oak. It is true that I very often thought

I had found it, but, on farther search, it always turned out to be another parasitical plant, the *Loranthus Europeus*, which very strongly resembles the *Viscum album* in its general appearance, but is not an evergreen, and was just pushing forth its green leaves. The abundance of this plant, which is to be seen in all the oak forests in Hungary, surprised me, and it is probable that the other also may sometimes occur, but it is certainly by no means common, and I was not fortunate enough to meet with it. I am inclined to think that it was this parasite, in habit and economy nearly allied to the misseltoe, which imposed on Clusius, who says, *Latifolia quercus per multas Pannoniæ sylvas* VISCI FERACISSIMA EST: *id Ungari* Fay gyöngy, *id est arboreum unionem vocant: ipsam verò arborem* Tóly fa, *Ilicem esse existimantes.* Rariorum Plantarum Hist. Antv. 1601. Lib. I. cap. xiii. p. 20. Little doubt can be entertained of its being the plant alluded to by Bellonius in the following passage: *Nullis locis a nobis antè peragratis, viscum in Quercubus nascens unquam videre contigerat: sed iter facientes per sylvam quæ est in planitie, in extimo sinu Chalcis nuncupato, magnâ copiâ invenimus. Nulla Quercus est inter montem Athon et urbes Ceres et Tricala secundum publicam viam quæ* VISCVM *non alat,* AB EO *quod in malis, pyris, et aliis arboribus nascitur* DIVERSVM, *et ab omnibus rusticis* Oso *nuncupatum: nam tenacissimum viscum ex ejus baccis faciunt.* Observationes, Antv. 1605. Lib. I. cap. lv. p. 59. Theophrastus (De Plantarum causis, Lib. II. cap. xxiii.) has stated, that the misseltoe, which grows on the oak, sheds its leaves annually, while that on every other tree is an evergreen. It is surprising, that this remark, which has been copied by Pliny, and recorded by many of the early botanists, should have escaped the notice of later writers. In England my endeavours to discover misseltoe on the oak have been uniformly unsuccessful; nor have I been able to obtain a single well authenticated account of its germinating

on any tree of that genus, and the Loranthus has not been found in our climate.

In this way, furnished at every step with the best means of understanding all that I saw around me, I had now spent many days at Keszthely, and was truly sorry when the plan of my excursion forced me to leave this interesting spot, and all the kindness of its possessor. Before, however, I take a final leave, I shall say a few words respecting the town.

Keszthely, which contains 4000 inhabitants, affords no society within itself; it is one of those little towns which are scarcely known as the residence of any one except the ruling noble, to whom all bow, and whose smile bestows a charm upon existence. The only trade which is here carried on is the traffic with the Jews. A few small tradesmen, indeed, furnish the immediate necessaries of life: for the rest, they are either the officers or the workmen of the Graf, or in some way connected with the schools and the religious establishments of the place; for, besides the institution I have so particularly described, there is a Catholic *Latin* school and a *Normal school*, which, though under the protection and support of the Graf, form part of the scheme of national education introduced by the Emperor Joseph. Keszthely affords a fair example of the situation of a great part of the population of Hungary. The number of those who inhabit large towns and free cities is so limited, that it is found not to exceed one in nineteen of the whole population. The rest live either in market towns like Keszthely, of which there are 691 in Hungary, or in villages, of which there are 11,068; and in very few of these is any cultivated society to be found. Hungary is in fact an agricultural nation, and even amongst those who inhabit the largest towns, and who exercise different trades, a mixture of agricultural employment is traced; whilst the trades and occupations connected with luxury and taste are necessarily neglected.



CHAPTER X.

Leave Keszthely.—Sz Miklos.—The Murakös.—Attempts to cultivate Silk.—Csaktornya.—Peculiarity in the Inhabitants of this District.—Varasdin.—Spring of Naphtha.—Prison.—Dairy.—Maize.—Gold-Washing.

At length I quitted Keszthely, under the guidance of a man who had engaged to convey me with his horses as far as Csaktornya. The Graf had kindly marked out a plan by which Sz Miklos, one of his estates, was to be the resting-place for the night, and by the second evening I should arrive at Csaktornya.

Leaving the Balaton Lake, much to the left, we passed over a tract of uninteresting country, and through two or three vil-

lages, and, after a short time, entered the forest,—in this part a beautiful grove. It was not long before we reached the marshes on the side of the river Szala, which we crossed near its mouth at Hidveg, a village belonging to Graf Zichy. The scenery was extensive, and rendered grand by massive forests. At twelve o'clock, we arrived at Kis Komàrom, a village which afforded a tolerable inn, built in the usual style, with the rooms upon the ground floor, each of which was entered by a separate door, from a passage open to the yard, paved, and covered with a roof supported by wooden pillars. Here, for about a shilling, I dined well, and at two o'clock again set forward. The country became much more pleasing than any I had passed in Hungary. It sometimes recalled to mind even our English meadows, and at other times afforded rich tracts of corn land. The soil was a sandy loam. At the next village, we met above a hundred little waggons, each drawn by two white oxen. These had been conveying soldiers, and were now, with no other loading than provender for the cattle, and the peasants their conductors, returning homewards. The road was enlivened by hill and dale, and as it continued through a broken grove of old oaks, it could not be wanting in beauty. The horizon was never interrupted by mountains, but was sufficiently varied to make the landscape complete. We passed Kis Kanisa, that is, *Little* Kanisa, and afterwards Nagy, or *Great* Kanisa, a town important as one of the chief central markets to which the produce of Lower Hungary is brought, and whence it is conveyed to Œdenburg and Vienna. It contains two or three tolerable streets, and is inhabited by a great number of Jews. There is also a monastery, and the monks perform service at several of the churches in the neighbourhood. From this town, a short stage, of about two miles, brought us to Sz Miklos.

Sz Miklos is a village of peasants' huts, dispersed irregularly over a rising ground amidst orchards, and on an opposite ascent is an establishment of the Graf Festetits, consisting of a house for the officers of the estate, and various buildings for agricultural purposes. The first thing which struck me, on entering the yard, was the table with iron clasps, which I have before mentioned, as employed by the managers of the estate when inflicting stripes upon disobedient peasants. Having delivered a letter which I had brought from the office at Keszthely, I was received with the greatest attention, and before the evening closed, walked with the principal officer about the estate. It is one of the most enviable properties I can well conceive in this country. It contains about 2000 joch of arable land, 1500 of grass and extensive vineyards, all surrounded by about 7000 joch of forest.

The appointed number of peasants upon this estate is 30, but as each session of land is divided into three, there are, in fact, 90 families, affording in all 3120 days labour, which being doubled, according to an usual calculation, on account of certain benefits received, and certain penalties incurred, gives 6240 days; besides which, it is necessary, on this estate, to keep five farm-servants in constant pay. The vineyards are chiefly rented by the peasants, who give a trifling consideration in money, and one-seventh of the wine produced, to the landlord. Many of the peasants occupy likewise corn land, to the extent of a joch or two above the sessional allotment, on terms of the same kind.

The peasants are here poor, uniting to the common disadvantages of their lot, the possession of that tempting, but injurious, species of property, vineyards. They are miserably ignorant. One or two only, in this village, can either read or write. There is, however, a national school, such as

is established in every village, and each peasant pays a certain quantity of produce to the master, whether he send his children or not. I might repeat here the observations I made at Keresztúr, but I will only say, as an illustration of the frequency of crimes, that, during the preceding winter, more than a hundred of the wine vaults, belonging to the vineyards in this immediate neighbourhood, were plundered. The culprits, in these cases, are sent to Csurgo, another of the Graf's estates, as there is no prison at Sz Miklos. The wall on the outside of my chamber door was hung with heavy irons, used in securing and transporting them.

I observed, in the corner of the room in which I slept, a bundle of notched sticks, which, upon inquiry, I found to be connected with the mode of keeping accounts between the lord and the peasant. These tallies respectively correspond with duplicates in the possession of the peasant. For each day's work performed, he receives from the officer a leaden mark, and every second Sunday the peasantry come together, bringing their tallies to be notched. At the end of the year, and not till then, a calculation of the whole is made, and if a peasant have worked more days than his session, his benefices, his penalties, and his debts require, he receives 12 kreutzers for each extra day.

About nine o'clock, I sat down with the two chief officers. The wife of one, a good tempered little woman, had prepared us an excellent supper, beginning with soup, and proceeding according to the strictest rules of Hungarian hospitality. I found, that both my hosts had been educated at the Georgicon. One of them was the first pupil who ever entered the institution. Thus I had living proof of its utility. Whilst conversing after supper, a book was produced in which visitors were accustomed to enter their names with some motto,

verse, or inscription, as a memorial, and I was requested to add mine to the number. This is what the Germans call a *Stamm-buch*, and I have frequently been called upon in Hungary to enrol my name upon its pages.

In the morning, as we were about to take our coffee, one of the Franciscan friars, from Kanisa, made his appearance. He was come to perform service at Sz Miklos, for which he is annually paid, by the estate, 60 florins, and receives 40 bushels of wheat, and as much rye. Every peasant on the estate must carry for him, to Kanisa, a load of fire-wood, and he receives fees at all marriages, deaths, and baptisms. This order appears to do nothing for the poor, except to give them absolution, although they are going constantly from cottage to cottage, to beg eggs and butter for the church; and never fail, at the time of wine-gathering, to entreat the peasant not to forget the poor friars at Kanisa. There are six brethren belonging to this community, four of whom are employed in performing service at churches in the country. All their gains are put into a common stock, and they fare at last but poorly; for, like other establishments of t he same kind in Hungary, they have suffered much by the reforms of the Emperor Joseph. We took another walk on the estate, saw the brick-kiln and the sheep, which are all highly improved, and visited the extensive wine cellars, and the cherry orchards, where the nightingales were still singing sweetly, and the prospect of fruit was flattering. My obliging host then ordered his carriage, that he might accompany me a short distance on the road, not, however, without first pressing me much to remain, and promising a concert from the gypsies in the evening. Of these he has four families on the estate, who obtain their privilege of residence by the service they perform, in conveying letters, and in other irregular duties. As we

drove along, our attention was directed to a well projected experiment on the succession of crops, according to the plan pursued at Keszthely. The lands appropriated to this purpose were eleven large fields, arranged along each side of the high road. The order of rotation I have already mentioned, and, in this case, the land looked exceedingly well.

I had here, again, an opportunity of observing the almost barbarous indolence of a great part of the lower orders of Hungary. If any thing could show a want of reason, or of domestic connection and civilization, it was these groups of men, not with their families,—not with their wives,—not in conversation with each other,—but herding together, merely because the same sloping bank invited each of them to the enjoyment of basking in the sun-beams. There they might be counted by tens, stretched out at length, wrapped in greasy sheep skins, and dreading the trouble of entering the church, where the priest had already begun to read the prayers. Arriving upon the borders of a forest, my companion quitted me, and I proceeded alone. The day was delightful; the forest was chiefly birch; the flowers were richly spread upon the ground; and I was surrounded by blackbirds and nightingales in full song. I saw two or three fine green, and several grey lizards, enjoying themselves in the warmth of the sun.

At eight o'clock, emerging from the forest, we had vineyards on our left, and before us the island, formed by the Drave and Muhr; in the distance, the high mountains of Styria and Croatia. At the small hamlet of Kákonya, is a ferry across the Muhr,—here a rapid stream. We passed upon a platform, sufficiently large to carry three country waggons, and floated by three long canoes, each cut out of a single tree.

No sooner had we crossed this river, than we came amongst a new tribe of people, known very generally under the

appellation of the islanders. They are almost entirely of Croatian origin, and retain the language and manners of their parent country. The tract of land which they inhabit lies between the Drave and the Muhr, and is called the Murakös. It is generally flat, and the soil gravelly. Every part of the island seems to have formed, at different epochs, the bed of one or other of the streams, which still continue to change their course a little, every time the melting of the snow fills their shallow channels, at which periods the island is still subject to inundations.

Amongst the misfortunes to which the Hungarian peasantry are subject, the overflowing of rivers, and the destruction of their crops by storms of hail, are too distressing to be overlooked. Scarcely an autumn passes in which some extensive tract is not laid waste by the floods which swell the rivers of the country, more particularly in the north. The misery which accompanies the progress of these torrents is almost incalculable. The effects of hail are generally more partially felt, but the devastation it occasions is no less certain and complete; those who have not witnessed the effects, can form but an imperfect idea of the destruction which it causes. Passing along the banks of the Danube, considerably higher in its course than Hungary, in the territories of Bavaria, I think, I once had an opportunity of observing this calamity on an extensive corn country. The appearance of the fields was so singular, that I could not, at first, conjecture by what means it had been produced. The straw was standing nearly erect, but every stalk had been cut off a few inches below the ear, except in some places sheltered by trees; but the trees themselves had here suffered severely. On inquiring the cause, I was informed, that a storm of hail had fallen a few days be-

fore, and had in this way ruined the crops through an extent of several miles.

To protect some parts of the island, and afford a secure communication, elevated ridges, almost like the dikes of Holland, have been constructed, upon which the roads run. It was upon such a raised road that we now travelled; and although the country is far from being fertile, the frequency of hedges and brushwood gives it an agreeable clothing. Considerable droves of cattle were feeding; a mixed breed, between the Hungarian and the Styrian. Much of the land is covered with bushes and thorns, but affords a pasture of which the cattle seem particularly fond. In a short time we came to the village of Vidovecz, built with much less regularity than most of the Hungarian villages.

The houses are larger and higher, having a complete upper floor. The roof of the house generally projects four or five feet beyond the wall in the front, where it is supported by wooden pillars, which rest upon large beams of timber, and thus a gallery is formed the whole length of the house. This passage, slightly raised above the ground, is usually much wider about the centre of the front, where the building recedes, and here the females of the family often sit at a table working. The walls of this part of the cottage are covered with shelves on the outside, upon which the dishes and household utensils are arranged. In some cases the passage is much larger, and the house being built in the form of an L, is continued along the end and the two internal fronts. Between the pillars of this rude piazza a shelf is constructed, and a cupboard is fixed containing a vessel of water for domestic use.

All the fences towards the road, and those of the yards, are of strong wicker-work, thatched on the top with straw and

reeds. In the yards stand several small buildings of the same materials, intended as houses for poultry, or as drying places for maize, together with large wooden hutches for pigs, and an oven of clay and stone covered by a pent-house.

The cottage kitchen is unusually convenient, and most of the cookery is carried on by means of the ordinary hearth fire of Germany, to which an oven is added as part of the kitchen furniture.

Leaving Vidovecz, we proceeded along a fine elevated road. The fields were now cultivated more in the Croatian manner, with narrow furrows; for the Hungarian furrows are very wide. They were enclosed with dead hedges. Many of the villages assumed a very English appearance, the houses surrounding small commons, on which grew a few willows, and flocks of geese grazed before the doors. The people, however, appeared to me particularly ill dressed. They were negligent and dirty in the extreme, considering it was the Sabbath; and groups of women and children were seated upon the earth in a dusty road. I observed many of their necks deformed by *goîtres*. It was after four o'clock when I arrived at Perlac.

Perlac, a small town of thatched houses, is the chief place at which the silk, produced in this part of Hungary, is prepared. Considerable pains are here taken to encourage the rearing of silk-worms. The manufacture was formerly in the hands of the proprietor of the island, but the comitatus has now purchased it. The silk-worms are reared by the peasants, who bring the cocoons to Perlac, where they are paid for them by the agent of the comitatus. Mulberry-trees, which have been planted as the common property of the neighbourhood, grow on each side of many of the roads. Upon the whole, however, the cultivation of silk-worms does not flourish. The quantity of cocoons has sometimes amounted

to 50 centners, which yield, under proper management, about one-ninth part of good silk; but even this is above the present produce.

Many attempts made in other parts of Hungary to rear these insects have been attended with some success. They were first introduced into the Banat by Graf Mercy about the year 1734, but the Turkish war breaking out in 1739, forced him to relinquish the pursuit. In 1765, the Empress Maria Theresia did her utmost to encourage the culture; and afterwards the Emperor Joseph constructed buildings for the purpose, planted mulberry trees, brought Italians into the country who had been accustomed to the management of the worms and their silk, and endeavoured to encourage the peasants to rear them in their own cottages. By these means the produce of silk was so much increased, that Hungary, which in 1765 yielded but 183 pfunds of wound silk, produced in 1785 not less than 13,100 pfunds. This branch of industry has not, however, proceeded so rapidly since that time; and the greatest yearly produce which has been known was in 1801, when the royal silk establishments produced 178 centners, and those of private individuals probably about 30 centners. By far the greater part of it comes from the districts of the military frontiers, extending along the south of Hungary. The culture of the silk-worm is not, however, confined to these limits; but private establishments, both for rearing the worms and purchasing the cocoons from the peasants, are found in the Biharer, Bekeser, Pesther, Heveser, Weszprimer, and Neutraer counties, and in the towns of Zombor and Tyrnau.

In the year 1802, Joseph Blaschkowitsch, who had devoted unwearied attention to the subject, invited the landholders to witness a trial, instituted under the encouragement of govern-

ment at Ofen, of his improved method of rearing the silk-worm. The great objects which he proposed were, to diminish the time that elapses between the hatching of the egg and the obtaining of the pure silk, so that it might not interfere with the occupations of the agriculturist, and he found that he could reduce this period from nine to five weeks. He likewise found means to feed the worms produced from half an ounce of the eggs, upon the leaves of six mulberry trees, which before had required from twenty to twenty-six. From every half ounce of eggs, he procured fifteen or twenty pfunds of cocoons more than by the usual process, and from eight or ten pfunds of cocoons he obtained one pfund of pure silk; whereas twenty or thirty pfunds had formerly been necessary for the same produce. This method farther enabled a peasant, who could before manage only half an ounce of eggs, now to rear the worms from half a pfund. The means which he employed were chiefly intended to reduce each different process in the eventful lives of these little animals to a regular period, that every one might run his course, as nearly as possible, within the same time. With this view, he discarded most of the artificial methods which had been adopted for hatching the egg; and without exposing them to the partial heat of the sun, to warmed pillows, or to the warmth of the bosom, all of which were practised, placed them in a situation where they might be equally affected on all sides by the surrounding atmosphere. He introduced the use of reed mats, which he found, in many respects, superior to paper, for receiving the eggs; and as all the cocoons were finished together, he was able to destroy all the chrysalids at the same time. For this purpose, he constructed an oven, in which he killed the animals in 30 centners of cocoons in twenty-four hours; and in his invitation could speak with

confidence as to the periods of the changes, in the following terms: "On the 12th of May the worms will begin to break from their eggs; seven days afterwards the first change of the skin will take place, which will occupy twenty-four hours; at the end of another week, the second change of the skin will commence, which will last for two complete days; seven days after, the third change will occur, which will occupy three days; and in seven days more they will change their skins for the fourth and last time, a process which will continue for four days. In eight days from this time, the whole of the silk worms will begin to spin, in five days more their labours will be completed, so that on the sixth day they may be taken from the places where they have spun, and exposed a day before the winding commences."

Blaschkowitsch afterwards published some books of much authority upon the subject. In 1807 an establishment was instituted at Toth Almas, near Pesth, which was put under his guidance; and, in 1812, Stephan Von Begh, Obergespann of the Baranyer comitatus, brought him to Fünfkirchen to give instructions upon the subject publicly; which he did with great effect, and seemed at the time to infuse much ardour into those he taught.

The greatest attention, as I have already observed, was paid to this subject in the Banat and the military frontier provinces, where the peculiarity of the constitution, as a military government, gives a singular facility for authoritative interference; and the following abstract of the regulations, issued in 1805, presents an illustration, by no means devoid of interest, of the mode in which that interference is directed.

In order to give greater spirit to the culture of silk in the district of the frontier Banat regiment, by the practical education of scholars, the general frontier direction, after delibe-

ration with the masters of the schools, commanded, that the holidays, which had hitherto been kept in the months of September and October, should in future be transferred to the months of May and June, and that, during them, the scholars should be employed in the management of silk-worms, under the inspection of a teacher; one-half of the profits to be given to the teachers and their assistants, and the other half to the scholars who applied themselves diligently to the pursuit; amongst whom the four who most excelled were to receive double shares. The stands upon which the silk-worms are kept were in the first place to be paid for by the government, and afterwards to be kept in repair out of the profits. In addition to the extensive mulberry plantations which already existed, all other open places, particularly the church-yards, were to be planted with these trees; and to every person who employed himself in rearing silk-worms, a certain number of the trees were to be assigned.

The gathering of the leaves was to be performed by the scholars, under the inspection of their superiors. Whosoever intentionally injured a mulberry tree, was called upon to plant fifteen, and be answerable for their growing. According to an order issued in the preceding year, the inhabitants of the frontier regimental districts were obliged to make good the decayed mulberry trees by means of new plants, and were in a particular manner directed to take care of the mulberry plantations. By means of these and similar ordinances, the progress, both as to the quantity of silk produced and as to the number of mulberry trees, was very considerable; and, in October 1806, it was found, that, in the southern military frontiers, without including those of Transylvania, which are more to the east, there were 706,731 trees of this species, making an increase during the last year of 17,929. Proper officers

were appointed for the inspection of all the different processes, both in the culture of the mulberry and in the rearing of the worms, and the most approved books upon the subject were widely circulated.

As the result of their regulations, we find, during the three subsequent years, a rapid increase in the quantity of silk, so that the yearly produce in these military frontiers, and the sums paid by government to the cultivators, were as follows :

In 1806	546 cent.	$3\frac{1}{4}$ pf.	of cocoons	357,44 fl. $5\frac{3}{4}$ kr.
1807	1066	$89\frac{2}{5}$ pf.		918,16 fl. 35 kr.
1808	1430	$93\frac{1}{2}$ pf		130,912 fl. $53\frac{3}{4}$ kr.

These were, however, the periods of its greatest success. Bad seasons followed. In 1810 the quantity was reduced to 710 centners, for which 71,705 fl. were paid ; and the same cause, accompanied likewise with unfavourable political events, has given a very material check to this branch of industry, which appeared to be acquiring importance and stability. The Hungarian character, and the habits of all the peasantry of this country, are undoubtedly but little suited to the peculiar attention and minute care which are requisite for the pursuit of an employment so strictly domestic, and the reward to which they can look with certainty is but an inadequate return for the labour and restraint to which they are subjected. The government has not, indeed, a monopoly in this article ; the market is open to any private speculator ; still but few purchasers offer themselves, and the peasant is generally obliged to be contented with the rate fixed at the royal establishments, where he receives from 30 kreutzers to a gulden for a pfund of cocoons, according to the state in which they are brought.

In the year 1810, the Ritter von Heintl instituted trials in

the Banat military frontier under the countenance of government, with a view to naturalize the silk-worm in the open air; and the following account, written by one who bore part in these attempts, will be read with interest:

"In pursuance of the orders of the commandant general of 27th June 1810, by which the agricultural officers of this district were required to make experiments under the direction of the Ritter von Heintl, with a view to accustom the silk-worm to the climate of the country, trials were actually made during the last spring in the following places: at *Perlasvaros*, with one loth (half ounce) of eggs; at *Thomashevacz*, with one half-loth; at *Oppova*, with one loth; at *Glogon*, with one loth; at *Jarkovacz*, with one-half loth; at *Alibunar*, with one-fourth loth; at *Starcsova*, with one loth; at *Homolicz*, with one loth; at *Kubin*, with one half-loth; at *Grebenácz*, with one half-loth; at *Isbistic*, with one half-loth; at *Neudorf*, with one half-loth; at *Panscova*, with several loths, both on single trees and in the mulberry plantations.

"The weather proving fine, the eggs, at the end of April and the beginning of May, were fastened in boxes secured with a cover upon the trees, and freely exposed to the sun. As the weather varied a little in different places, the eggs were not hatched exactly at the same time, but where much rain and considerable changes in the atmosphere occurred, the worms began to appear on the 10th or 12th day, which was the case with almost all which were put out in April. Where the weather was fine and dry, they crept out upon the 5th day. As soon as this had taken place, the covers of the boxes were removed, the nearest branches of the trees were bent down into the boxes, and an opportunity was thus given to the little animals of seeking their own nourishment, and of distributing themselves gradually over the trees.

" At Jarkovacz, Thomashevacz, Alibunar, and Neudorf, in the north-eastern part of this flat district, the little race was in a short time completely destroyed by storms and sudden showers. In other places they attained to different sizes, according as the atmosphere was more or less disturbed. They had already passed through their first sleep at Glogon, Perlasvaros, and Isbistic, and even through their second at Grebenácz, when hail-storms, showers, and gusts of wind, cast them down from the leaves, and they perished.

" At Homolicz, Oppova, Starcsova, Kubin, and Panscova, in the south, where no hail fell, the silk-worms survived till the period of spinning, without being injured by the casual rains or the cold nights frequent in that district, but hard showers washed down many of the large and heavy worms. Other dangers also threatened the destruction of these little colonies, dangers which increased with their growth, and will remain as obstacles to the culture of silk in the open air, even though the difficulties of the climate should be overcome. Birds, particularly sparrows and starlings, killed a great number ; and others, as they approached the period of spinning, fell from the trees and were crushed. It was only at Oppova, Starcsova, and Panscova, that a few actually spun. At Oppova, thirty-one came to perfection, and fifteen male and sixteen female moths ate through their cones, six only of the former and three of the latter had strength to come forth, and then laid eggs upon their cocoons, which in time produced other young silk-worms which died. At Starcsova, one cocoon only was found. The worms at Panscova, which were placed upon the trees by the way side and in the plantations, suffered the same fate as the rest. The birds destroyed the greater part, others were washed away by the rain, the rest, for the most part, when they had undergone their second change of skin,

fell to the ground by their own weight, where they were crushed or lay quite unable to assist themselves. On the thick espaliers in the plantation they were, in every respect, the most secure, as they were less exposed to the wind and the birds. The fall from the lower leaves was less dangerous, and recovery easier. Here many worms came to perfection, spun, crept from their cocoons, and in twenty-four different places eggs were deposited. The moths laid their eggs thickly together in irregular forms, never upon the leaves, but upon the bark of the trunk or the branches.

" From these trials, it appears that the climate does not of itself prevent the eggs from hatching, and that an ordinary rain, even of some duration, and the coolness of the nights, are not injurious to the worms; but it is certain, that the larger they are and the more heavy they become, the more helpless they appear; and that, on account of the little power they possess of attaching themselves firmly to trees, when compared with other animals of a similar kind, they are badly protected, and fall very frequently to the ground. It will be seen, whether the insects, procured from eggs laid in the open air, possess greater power of holding themselves on the trees, provided the eggs are not destroyed by the weather or by ants before the spring arrives."

Such is the disastrous history of this tender colony; and those which were established in the Walacho-Illyrian frontier shared nearly the same fate. The trials were repeated in 1812, and proved equally unsuccessful.

Whilst the horses rested at Perlac, a new source of delay arose; for my driver, being himself the owner of the beasts, was tempted, by the price of L. 3, to part with one of them to the master of the inn. When he came to make his apology to me, he pleaded as an excuse the goodness of the bargain,

and promised to provide other horses to fulfil the remainder of his engagement. After remaining some time, during which I amused myself by watching the proceedings of a party engaged in a game not unlike skittles, we again set forward.

The country divided into small fields, though perfectly flat, affords a most pleasing variety to those whose eyes have been fatigued for months by the unbounded extent of German and Hungarian agriculture. The Styrian mountains formed a fine distant outline, and as evening closed upon us, we were accompanied constantly by the nightingale, until our wheels, rattling over the draw-bridge, carried us through a deep archway in the ramparts, and stopped in the court-yard of the castle of Csáktornya. This is another mansion of Graf Festetits, who is the possessor of the whole of this extensive district. I was of course furnished with letters to the officers who had the direction of the estate, and was immediately lodged in chambers in the castle, where the Hofrichter and the Chief Engineer came to welcome my arrival.

In this way the Hungarian nobles, not contented to receive strangers with the greatest hospitality at their immediate residences, are able to afford them a much more extensive service, by securing to them a kind reception and assistance from their representatives in their distant domains. To ensure this more certainly, it is usual for the Hofrichter to keep, in a column of his account-book, the expences he incurs in the entertainment of strangers, so that he feels himself perfectly at ease whilst performing the duties of hospitality, to which he never fails to add attentions which shew that he is actuated by feelings no less kind than those of his principal.

This district, or, as it is denominated, the Murakös, is of a triangular form, bounded on the north by the Muhr,

and on the south by the Drave; its south-east angle being formed by the confluence of these two rivers. On the west it joins Styria. Its dimensions may be stated at 30 English miles by 12, and its population at 46,000, distributed in 113 towns and villages. This tract of country belonged formerly to the family of Graf Nicholaus Zrinii, who distinguished himself much in the Turkish wars, and died gloriously at the battle of Siget in 1566. When this family became extinct, the estate fell again into the hands of the crown, and was afterwards given to Count Althan, at that time in great favour at court, and it was from the descendants of his family, that the present possessor obtained it by purchase for 1,600,000 fl. The soil and the jurisdiction belong entirely to Graf Festetits, but at the same time it is occupied under him in a much more complicated way than the generality of Hungarian possessions. Different parts of the estate are held on three distinct tenures. *First*, Many villages obtained from the original possessor freedom from the ordinary *robot*, on account of services performed in the war. He allotted them certain portions of land, stipulating for a small fixed portion of *robot*, perhaps 400 days, and a certain annual rent. The population of these villages has greatly increased, every one being allowed to settle in them who has an opportunity of purchasing any of the land included in the original grant, and thus the country is now divided into so many small portions, that a man is esteemed rich who possesses four acres in such a village; and in places, where originally not more than fifty families lived, they are now increased to five or six hundred. *Secondly*, Many occupy their lands from the present Graf, on certain stipulated terms, in perpetuity; a right which can only be enjoyed by the proprietor of a purchased estate, since the property in hereditary

lands is sacredly preserved by law to the heir; and even in the case of purchase, such stipulations must be void if the descendants of the former family are willing to reclaim the purchased property within the period fixed by law. *Thirdly*, There are here, as elsewhere, peasants subject to all the *urbarial* regulations.

It is the first of these classes which forms the peculiarity of, and gives a distinctive character to the islanders. This class is nearly independent of the lord of the territory, and we may judge how advantageous such a situation is considered, from the great increase of population in the free villages. Many of the inhabitants are possessed of horses, and exercise a lucrative employment as carriers, conveying goods on account either of the cultivators, or of the purchasers, to the distant markets of Pesth, or Œdenburg, or southwards towards Italy. Their horses are amongst the best in Hungary, and the drivers adopt the mode of the northern parts of the country, sitting on one of the wheelers, and directing the two leaders with a long rein.

Not only did the comfortable appearance of their cottages, and the good condition of their fences, which are particularly striking, evince the superior state of the free peasants, but the difficulties under which the country was labouring at the time I saw it, put the fact in a very clear point of view. During the last two years, every part of Hungary had suffered from the badness of the crops, and the island had of course participated; but to increase the distress, in September of the preceding year, an extensive inundation took place, from the overflowing of the Drave, by which a great part of the maize was destroyed. By these successive misfortunes, the condition of the urbarial peasants had been rendered deplorable, and the court-yard of the castle was crowded with

supplicants, praying that they might be permitted to purchase corn upon the credit of the next harvest, which was still at the distance of four months. They were, in fact, so poor and destitute, that many families had literally nothing, and they declared it would be impossible for them to perform the labour required by the lord, unless relief were afforded them.

At the same time, the free peasants suffered likewise. Rye, which had been the preceding year at $1\frac{1}{2}$ florin, and the year before at $1\frac{1}{4}$ florin per metze, had risen to 15 florins; but as they held a certain fund on which to depend, and had a means of support beyond their lands, little as it might be, it afforded them some resource, and encouraged them to continued exertions.

The islanders were said to maintain, even amidst their poverty, the good character of honesty, which they have long enjoyed. Thefts are very rare, so that there were not more than four or five culprits in the castle prison. And the only capital punishment inflicted in the memory of man, is recorded by the gallows erected upon the occasion, and still standing near the road to Varasdin. Such, indeed, is the habitual honesty of these people, that, as I noticed before, on the outside of every cottage are arranged the various household utensils, dishes, &c. which remain there constantly in perfect security, without the protection of the numerous watch dogs which guard the most insignificant cottage in other parts of Hungary. What may be the source of this improvement of character, I know not. But I am inclined to ascribe it principally to the sympathies and emulation of a mixed people, where the gradations of society supply motives to good conduct and improvement, unknown to peasants who see no intermediate rank between themselves and the proprietor.

The independent feelings, however, arising from this con-

dition, sometimes excite a resistance on the part of the peasant to the claims of his lord, which is productive of severe trouble and vexation: for it often happens, that either by encroachment on the part of the peasants, or by original error in the allotment, they are found to possess more than the portion allowed to them by law. The lord wishing to reclaim his land, sends his engineer to mark out for each peasant his lawful property. If the peasant be content, he ceases to cultivate the land to which he has no right, and the matter ends; but, a short time before my arrival, fourteen villages on the island referred their claims, under these circumstances, to the comitatus. This court could not but yield to the Graf, on whose side the law was clear. The villagers, however, refused to submit, continuing to cultivate their lands; and it was doubted, whether it would not be necessary to call in military aid to reduce them to obedience.

At seven o'clock in the morning, after my arrival at Csaktornya, I went with the Hofrichter and chief engineer to Varasdin, where they had some business. We passed through the village of Nedelicz, once a much more important place, and furnished with a printing press, from which issued one of the earliest Bibles printed in the Croatian language. At present it is a barrier town, upon the road towards Italy, where an impost called the *thirtieth* is levied upon all goods entering or leaving Hungary. The road was lined by rows of mulberry trees, and the whole way enlivened by groups of peasants going towards Varasdin, where a yearly fair had this day commenced. We stopped a few minutes before we passed the strong wooden bridge thrown over the Drave, to make inquiries about the price of timber, for as there is but little forest in the island, timber is obtained chiefly from Styria. It is there cut by saw-mills into scant-

Sketched by R. P.

Engraved by J. Pye

VIEW FROM THE MURAKOS

ling, and rafted down the river to Varasdin, where it is landed and exposed for sale upon the shore. This is particularly the case with fir timber, of which, indeed, there is scarcely any in Hungary.

We now passed the bridge by which we entered Croatia, and whilst the peasants were forced to pay toll, we were suffered to pass free. Varasdin is situated about a quarter of a mile from the river. The town appears of importance when approached in this direction, being marked by three or four high steeples. The Croatian mountains, which rise behind, at the distance of about four miles, are lofty and finely varied. When we arrived, the streets were lined with booths and filled by peasants, partly from Croatia, and partly from the island. The dresses of the two districts are scarcely to be distinguished; the men wear large cloaks like other Hungarian peasants. The dress of the women is elegant. On the head is placed a large square of white linen, forming a roll in front, like that which sometimes occurs upon Caryatides, one fold falling over the back and two lying on the shoulders. The margins are adorned with borders of coarse lace, two or three inches deep. The vest is of woollen cloth fitted to the body without sleeves, and descending below the knees, where it is trimmed with a few coloured stripes, generally red, and bordered by fringe or lace. The white shift sleeves hang large and loose, and are likewise ornamented with coarse lace. The vest is of two kinds, either opening on the sides or before, so as to display the laced front of a bodice, held together by clasps, formed of bunches of coloured glass beads. Below the vest, about two inches of a white petticoat appear, and below this again another petticoat neatly plaited; and beneath all boots, either of black or yellow leather. They likewise frequently wear coarse linen shawls folded round their shoulders and arms. The women from the

country more to the west, still a Slavonian race, wear a much more stiff and less becoming dress. Jackets of dark-coloured cloth, tight about the waist, and large and heavy petticoats; the head bound with a handkerchief. Most of the peasants had cattle to sell, each possessing one or two of the most miserable horned beasts I have ever seen, smaller than the Highland breed, and much more slightly formed. The town affords little that is remarkable. There is a castle, the supposed residence of the governor, Graf Erdödi, who, however, never resides there,—an antiquated building surrounded by a high mound as a fortification, which overlooks a convent much frequented as a place of female education.

Having returned to Csaktornya to dinner, I afterwards visited a sheep farm belonging to my host, where all the sheep are in a state of high improvement, being derived from the flock at Keszthely. Near the same place another extensive experiment is going on in the rotation of crops, a system which here meets with some opposition.

We next drove to Pecklanitz, a village near the Muhr, to see a curious spring of Naphtha which rises in a marsh at a small distance from it. With a view of collecting this substance, several small channels are cut in different directions, having their sides supported by boards. These become filled with water, and the naphtha floating upon the surface is driven every day, by means of a piece of board, into a receptacle partitioned off from each channel. The naphtha is sold chiefly to the peasants, who apply it to the wheels of their carts. The whole quantity thus annually collected is not more than 20 centners, each of which sells for about 20 florins. All the banks between the channels are covered with a thick coating of the dried naphtha, arising from the careless manner of removing it, so that the spring appears more productive

than it really is. It is surrounded by a hedge of wicker work, and the entrance is kept locked.

From the naphtha-well we proceeded to the banks of the Muhr, to examine a seam of coal of which we had heard much, and passed through a farm held by a nobleman, well cultivated on the rotation system. We found a bed of brown coal seven feet thick, cropping out under a high bank of sand, and running across the river, in the bed of which, during the dry season, it might be traced; no attempt had been made to ascertain its extent.

The church bells of Csaktornya rang early the next morning, announcing a procession, and the ceremony of blessing the fields, and praying for their fertility. The procession consisted of two or three Franciscan friars, with attendants bearing banners, and a crowd of peasants. I afterwards visited the Franciscan monastery. There are but four fathers, at present, in the cloister of Csaktornya, and three young men yet in their noviciate. The number of friars had been six, one of them had lately died, and was to be buried on that day, while another had been dismissed for a breach of continence. Those who remained seemed but little troubled with austerity. They live a kind of college life, each in his room, with his books about him, meeting together at dinner, at a stated hour, and as often besides as they think fit. Every member of their society performs mass once a day, for which they receive a certain stipend from the peasants and the lord of the estate. The town itself consists of one or two short streets, and the castle stands at the distance of a few paces; the moat and fortifications were originally very strong, but are now half destroyed. A high tower rises over the archway which forms the entrance. The castle is built, with slight irregularity, in the form of a square. The chief staircase is hand-

some, adorned with a large emblematical painting; but the effects of the weather, which shew themselves quickly in a deserted house, are beginning to destroy this rich ornamental ceiling, which seems a solitary misplaced remnant of the former splendour of Csaktornya. The rooms of the castle are small and almost unfurnished, the family never residing there; the chambers open into long corridors, which look into the court.

As the jurisdiction of the island is likewise in the hands of the Graf, the culprits are seen working in their chains upon the ramparts, and Heiducks, in half military Hungarian uniforms, await the orders of the Hofrichter. I visited the prison in the afternoon; it is formed in the solid mass of the ramparts, and the windows and door open into the arched gateway of the castle yard, where a large thigh bone, suspended between two pairs of massive fetters, is preserved, the disgusting memorial of one of these domestic prisoners, who had signalized his strength, in liberating himself from confinement. The entrance to the prison was from the keeper's room, out of which a grate looks into the dungeon for the women, which receives light only in this way. One poor object alone lay here upon her straw mattress. On the opposite side of the room was an iron door, lined with cloth to deaden the sound, and firmly locked. This led into a dark apartment, which formed the antichamber to the dungeon of the men; and when another massive door had been unbolted, I paused a moment before I ventured to proceed. The chamber of the dungeon was almost dark, for the grates, which opened into the archway, admitted but an obscure gleam of day. On entering, we were nearly suffocated by the smoke of a fire, which the prisoners were kindling, whilst sitting in a remote corner, loaded with their irons. A large chain pass-

ed round the dungeon in the usual manner; there was no other furniture; it was a dark and terrible recess; and it is scarcely credible, that men of the noblest and most refined minds, should persist in the barbarous custom of placing in the very gateway of their hospitable mansions,—in the only path by which their offspring can approach the domestic hearth,—the miserable victims of a most sacred, but, at the same time, most painful and revolting duty.

On looking around upon this mouldering heap, this frail remnant of a powerful fortress, this deserted abode of ancient magnificence, I could not but contrast it with its former condition, while the residence of the victorious Zrinii and his descendants.

Tollius, who travelled in Hungary in 1660, has given an account of his visit at Csaktornya, at that time in the possession of Graf Nicolas Zrinii, the great-grandson of the hero, who received this estate as the reward of his exertions, and who afterwards died so nobly at Szigethwar. Tollius journeyed in company with Graf Pöttingyi, a relative of the Zrinii family, and their intended visit had previously been made known to the proprietor of the castle. "When we drew near to Csaktornya, we were reconnoitred by several horsemen, in order that Count Zrinii might be informed of the precise moment of our approach; and were met, at the distance of a mile from the castle, by the count himself on horseback, attended by the whole of his family. Having alighted and embraced his relation, he accompanied him in the chariot. Through a succession of military stations we proceeded to the palace, a magnificent and spacious structure, admirably fortified. It was surrounded by a lake, which protected it against mines; but on the side which looked towards the village, a strong mound of earth was erected. We could not but wonder, that, in the midst of

such barbarous tribes, we should find so much refinement and elegance, both in furniture and personal ornament, and altogether so splendid an establishment. The gateways were hung with military trophies, taken from the Turks,—bows and quivers, battle axes and shields, and arms of all descriptions." Then, after describing Damascus scymitars, with hilts of gold, scabbards studded with jewels, and standards dyed with blood, he tells us there were also paintings in commemoration of the gallant deeds of the count, during the Turkish wars; and speaks of the library, the armoury, and the museum, as all admirably furnished. In the latter, amidst a splendid collection, medals of Horace and Ovid were shewn him, but he remarks, that learned men have proved these to be spurious. The busts of several kings and celebrated men attracted his attention, which was more particularly directed to those of Martin Luther and his wife Catharine, excellently carved. The gardens he despairs of pourtraying, unless you will recollect the ancient gardens of Alcinöus.

Whilst I was at Csaktornya, the engineer of the comitatus came to dine, and take the engineer of the estate to inspect some inroads which it had been reported the Drave was making upon the island; for bridges, rivers, and roads, all fall under the care of the comitatus. A Heiduck was speedily dispatched to procure a *forespann* of peasants' horses, which soon arrived, with the owner and the necessary provender. The excellence of the horses bespoke a master who was no ordinary peasant. He was one of the freed peasants, who, however, are not liberated from the *unlimited* service of the comitatus. We went to the borders of Styria, and found that there was some ground for fearing an inroad from the river. It was at the spot where two or three floating mills

seemed to have influenced the current. The engineer having made his observations, we returned, and as soon as we arrived at the castle, a pair of fresh horses were put to the carriage, which conveyed us to a small neat house intended as the occasional residence of the Graf when on this part of his estates. We here met in the garden one of the *Geschworne* of the comitatus, a man, of course, of noble birth, who invited us to call upon his wife. The residence of this gentleman was not to be distinguished, either internally or externally, from the other cottages of the village. I understand that he is a man of highly respectable character; yet, as the *Geschworne* of every comitatus are frequently called upon to act as judges, a situation in life so far removed from independence, does not promise well for the administration of justice.

My next visit was to the dairy at Csaktornya, which is one of three or four that the Graf has upon the island. The whole process of the dairy is simple, but differs much from our own. The cream is made into butter either in a perpendicular or a barrel churn. This butter is melted and boiled over the fire, and skimmed as long as any thing rises to the surface. By this process the quantity is reduced so much, that from every two pfunds only one pfund and a quarter remains. This is called *schmalz*, and is used very much in all Hungarian cookery. It is not salted, and will keep fresh and good for two years. The butter-milk is then coagulated and made into large round cheeses. All the cows are of the Swiss breed, very dark in their colour, but no register is kept of the quantity of milk produced by each cow. The dairy-man is bound to return annually 28 pfunds of schmalz for every cow which bears a calf, and 14 pfunds for each which does not; all the cheese and the remainder of the schmalz falls to his own share.

The soil of the island is generally poor, particularly on the

side bounded by the Drave, where rye, which in other parts of Hungary yields 14 or 15 fold, does not average above four or five. The land is rented here for periods of three years from 10 to 40 florins per joch, according to its quality, and many thousand joch are occupied on these terms. The great object of culture is maize, and bread made of this is the chief food of the inhabitants; it is good whilst new, but soon becomes sour and unpleasant. The estate of the Murakös is said to produce yearly about 15,000 metzen of this grain.

It has been conjectured that maize was first introduced into Hungary by water, because its Hungarian name, *tengeri buza*, signifies *sea wheat*. It has become a large article of growth, and is cultivated very much both in Hungary, Slavonia, and Croatia; it flourishes best in Sirmien and the Banat. It is much employed in feeding swine and geese, but is chiefly used as the food of man. The Walachians, in particular, seem partial to this grain, making it into bread, and a cake which they call *maté*. The Hungarians frequently eat the seeds of maize when young and milky, either boiled or roasted; and prepare maize with honey and bruised poppy seeds, of which they are very fond. The meal, when mixed with wheat or rye, makes much better bread than when used alone, and gruel, prepared with maize grits, is said to be pleasant, sweet, and nutritive, and, with an addition of milk, is much admired by the peasants. Dr Lübeck recommends, that the stalks of this plant, which are generally considered as useless, should be burnt for potash, and says, that 4000 pfunds of stalks will yield 354 pfunds of ashes, from which 30 pfunds of coarse potash may be procured. Professor Rumi, enumerating the purposes to which this plant may be rendered subservient, says, that in America they make beer from the grain, and that it yields a good spirit; he adds, " The

fresh stalks afford sugar, a subject upon which Baron Meidinger has written. This, however, is not to be recommended, as it must be done at the expence of the harvest. The young heads make very good pickles, and the flour may be advantageously used in preparing starch. This grain is exempt from tithe. Of the yearly produce I can speak with no certainty."

Another article raised to a considerable extent in this province is tobacco, which, after that of Tolna and Fünfkirchen, is esteemed the best in Hungary; but is deemed much inferior to that of Szegedin, Arad, or Debretzin. Vines are in some degree cultivated in the Murakös, principally upon the mountains which rise to the westward on the borders of Styria, where, particularly in the neighbourhood of Strido, they produce a fine sweet wine, placed by some in comparison with the Tokay.

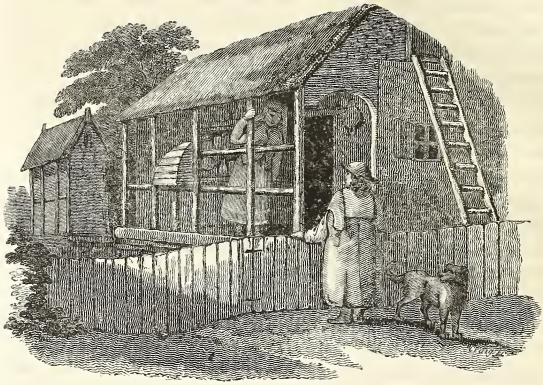
One other product of this country deserves observation, which is the gold procured from the sand of the Drave, and this I mention the more willingly, as I have before me a short and distinct account of the means employed in collecting the sand, extracted from the *Brünner patriotische Tagesblatt;* and have no other opportunity of introducing to the notice of the reader a process, which is carried on to much greater extent in the rivers of Transylvania. The gold is only obtained in the district which lies between Mahrburg and Dernye, for below the latter, the river becomes more even in its course, and forms fewer sandbanks; the gold, therefore, which is not collected within these limits, is lost for ever. The gold-washers are peasants from the Szalader and the Creutzer Comitatus, who employ themselves in this way only when the business of the farm does not demand their labour: whence many of the best opportunities are suffered to pass unimproved.

The following is the mode adopted: The gold-washers take their boat and implements in a waggon to Mahrburg, where they embark upon the Drave, and as they pass down the stream seek out the shoals. Having found a place which promises well, they immediately commence their operations. The apparatus consists of a board five feet long and three feet broad, across which a number of deep notches are cut. This being placed as an inclined plane, the coarse sand is put, with a shovel, on the upper part, and water poured upon it, so that the larger sand rolls off, and the fine sand is detained in the notches. This is washed into a tray, and is then placed upon a concave board about a foot square, blackened by burning. It is here washed by a stream of water which carries away, first the clay and fine sand, then the coarse sand, and next a heavy iron-grey sand: at length a red sand remains which accompanies the gold. When as much as possible of the red sand likewise is washed away, quicksilver is well mixed with what remains; the amalgam is then put into leathern bags, the quicksilver squeezed out, the alloy submitted to heat, and the gold thus procured is taken to the royal offices, where a certain fixed price is paid for it. The whole process is conducted in so coarse a manner, that much gold and quicksilver are sacrificed.

The annual produce varies much, according to the degree in which the river has been swollen by the rains, and shoals and sandbanks deposited. The produce for the last 20 years has been much diminished, for formerly at the office of Dernye alone, 300 ducats have been brought by the peasantry. The cause of this may probably be found in the increased calls made upon the peasantry during a period of war, for labour in repairing the roads, and in furnishing *forespanns*, which prevents them from pursuing the business of gold-washing. It

is also to be remarked, that some of the richer banks have been nearly exhausted, and unless the labourers can obtain 30 kreutzers per man daily, they seldom think the bank worth working, but seek out a better. Gold-washing is a privilege of the crown, and each individual must obtain a license. The proprietors of the land have, indeed, the first right of gold-washing on their estates, but they must, like every other person, give up the gold to the treasury. The redemption of the gold takes place at the Dreyssigstamte, or office for receiving the duty called the thirtieth at Varasdin, and at the salt offices, or Perlac, and Kanisa, where, for the weight of a ducat, is paid three florins and 24 kreutzers. In late years, (1802,) the average quantity brought in annually has been from 50 to 60 ducats at Varasdin; from 500 to 600 at Perlac; and from 1000 to 1200 at Kanisa.

After spending some days at Csaktornya, I again set forward on my journey, not envying the lot of those who are condemned to pass their lives in a small town of this character, which affords as few materials for social intercourse as can well be conceived.



CHAPTER XI.

Croatia.—The Military Frontiers.—Ludbregh.—Csurgo.—Agriculture.—Bees and Honey.—Forests.—Prison.—Cyganis, or Gypsies.

Having already visited Varasdin, I wished merely to change horses and pass through it. Dinner, however, was just brought into the common room of the inn, and I seated myself with two or three visitors at the table. As a foreigner, I soon excited the curiosity of my companions, and they were the more eager to converse about England, as they had but the day before dined at the same table with an Hungarian nobleman then on his way, by a circuitous route, from this country. He had

excited their curiosity by his praises of our island, and they were pleased to see one who belonged to the English nation.

It was nearly two o'clock when I took my leave of the party, and left the town, passing, by an excellent road, along a country, which forms one plain with the island I had quitted, from which it is separated by the Drave. The road was on both sides lined with luxuriant hedges, and most of the fields were enclosed. At the distance of about two miles to the right the Croatian mountains begin to rise, a fine chain, of which many parts are covered with wood to the summit. The people and their habitations do not materially differ from those upon the island.

I would here enter somewhat at large into the character of the Croatian people and their country, but, without this digression, I shall trespass sufficiently upon the patience of my readers; and I relinquish the subject more readily, as I have several times had an opportunity of mentioning these people, who are widely distributed in Hungary itself, and of whose country I have sometimes spoken as closely connected with, and almost forming a part of, that kingdom. Croatia, Dalmatia, and Slavonia, are indeed provinces united to Hungary, and are termed *Partes annexæ subjectæ;* they have each a governor, stiled a Ban, and have some peculiar rights and statutes, sending their own representatives to the Hungarian Diet. In general, however, they are considered as Hungarian, and are eligible to all the offices of that country.

Shortly after crossing the Drave, the traveller enters upon a part of Croatia which belongs to the line of the Military Frontiers, a territory so singular in its organization, and presenting a feature so original in modern European policy, that we must not pass it, like Civil Croatia, without a few observations.

For many centuries the Austrian, and more particularly the Hungarian force, had been occupied in restraining the en-

croachments of the Turks, who, in spite of fortresses and barriers, every year grew more formidable, till at length they became masters of a large part of Hungary, and the rivers Raab and Waag were for a time the boundaries of their possessions. At length affairs took a more favourable turn, and the Turks, being driven back by the victorious arms of Leopold I. were confined, by the treaty of Carlowitz in 1699, and afterwards by that of Passarowitz in 1718, within their ancient limits. It now became the great object of the Austrian government to confirm this favourable result, and, if possible, to put a stop to all future offensive operations on the part of their neighbours. With this view they determined to organize the whole frontier line which separated the two countries, by making regular military service the indispensable condition on which lands in these districts could be held. This attempt was much favoured by the devastation which had accompanied the long series of Turkish wars, by which much of the land had been entirely alienated from its original possessors, and had fallen into the hands of the crown. Some, however, still remained, and remains even to this day, the property of the ancient nobility, though government has made extensive acquisitions, both by purchase and exchange. The regular distribution of the property was effected with ease in those parts where the lands had fallen completely to the crown, but became more intricate where, as in Croatia, the ancient nobles still existed. The new population of this country was a mingled tribe of Servians and Illyrians, accustomed to hardships and to war. It was not the wisdom of a single imperial decree which could complete the organization of this country, and improvements in the details of the administration have been a constant object of solicitude to the Austrian government, while the original system has been carefully preserved. As

late as the year 1807 the whole was reorganized, and in many respects improved.

The military frontiers extend from the Bukowina to the Adriatic Sea, forming a line of above 600 English miles. They are divided into districts denominated *Regiments*, under the command of colonels; these again into companies under captains; and these into families under patriarchs. The division into regiments consisted of seventeen regiments of infantry, one hussar regiment, and one battalion called the Nazadisten, until, at the treaty of Vienna in 1809, six regiments along the Croatian frontier were ceded to the French, and formed a part of their Illyrian provinces. By the union of several regiments are formed four frontier circles, each under the control of a commandant-general.

1. The circle of *Varasdin*, including the *Creutzer* and *St Georger* regiments.

2. The circle of *Slavonia*, formed of the *Gradiscaner*, *Broder*, and *Peterwardeiner* regiments.

3. The circle of the *Banat of Temeswar*, under which are the *Germanico-Illyrian* and the *Walacho-Illyrian* regiments.

4. The circle of *Transylvania*, consisting of two *Szchler* and *two Walachian infantry* regiments, and one regiment of *Hussars*.

The whole of this system is under the supreme direction of the Council of War at Vienna, which acts through the medium of a military court of appeal residing at Peterwardein, under whose control is likewise placed the corps of Watermen or Pontoneers, called the *Tschaikisten* corps, a district containing 19,463 inhabitants, near the confluence of the Theiss and the Danube, where a large body of men, whose head-quarters are at Titul, is constantly enrolled for service, in the management of flotillas, and the passage of the rivers.

The lands in the possession of the inhabitants of the military frontiers are divided into sessions, three-quarter sessions, half sessions, and quarter sessions. A whole session varies from eighteen to twenty-four joch of arable land, and from six to ten joch of grass land. According to circumstances, a larger or smaller portion of a session is granted to each male inhabitant, and with it one joch of land for his house and garden; for this he becomes bound to perform military service for the Emperor of Austria at home and abroad; and more particularly to defend the frontier, to pay a land-tax, and to contribute a certain portion to the public magazines. This property remains strictly hereditary, and is not to be divided or portioned out amongst several heirs, but to descend entire; it cannot be leased out to another; and, except on very particular occasions, and by special permission, cannot be sold, and then only to a man belonging to the frontiers, and one who does not possess an entire session. The exchange of one portion of land for another of equal extent is, however, allowed. On the failure of an heir, the possessor has no power of bequeathing his land, which then reverts to the crown. Besides these sessional portions, some others, which are called *extra lands*, are held on terms of greater liberty, but still under strict regulations. In all cases, the proprietor is allowed to convert grass lands into corn, or the contrary; but not into vineyards, unless by special permission, or when the land is too unproductive for other crops.

In order to carry on the cultivation of the land with greater regularity, and prevent its being neglected when the men are called into the field, as well as to assist in carrying political and military regulations into force, the whole is divided, as before observed, into little communities or families, sometimes comprising sixty possessors of sessional lands, not necessarily connected by birth, who choose an old man as their head, or Pa-

triarch, becoming accountable and obedient to him and to his wife. The possessions of the family are in common, every member is alike called upon to contribute his labour for the general welfare; and the gains are equally divided amongst all, except the Patriarch and his wife, to whom a double share is allotted. No member can possess separate lands or cattle, though he may possess money or furniture; and, when all the duties of the family are fulfilled, each individual may work for his own profit, paying a certain portion to the domestic treasury. If any one leave the family to which he belongs without permission, he is deemed a deserter, and is punished accordingly, being often sent to serve in a regiment of the line.

For the exercise of trades, those individuals are selected who are least able to bear arms, or the sons of those families in which the children are very numerous. Traffic in raw produce is permitted to every one, but not in manufactured goods, respecting which there are restrictions. All Catholic children are allowed to study with a view to the church, but the number for the ununited Greek church is limited; and when there are more candidates than are wanted, those are elected who can best be spared from the family to which they belong.

All the lands belonging to each regiment are divided into three classes according to their value, and accurately registered in a book for the purpose, together with the *land-tax* at which each is rated, and an exact statement of the sum of produce and of labour due from them to the public works of the regiment, and its *public magazines;* and, at the same time, the name of the family in whose hands they are is specified.

Each Patriarch has likewise a corresponding book, which he fills up with a description of the lands in his family, and keeps a regular account of all sums paid to the regiment, the

number of days in which labour has been performed, and the number of men employed either in actual service, or in forming cordons along the frontier; and at the end of the year the whole account is settled, a certain fixed low rate being paid to each family for every soldier it has provided, which is deducted from the land-tax; or, if the sum amount to more than the whole tax, it is paid in money, and in the same manner a balance is struck between the other contributions both of labour and of produce, so that, in fact, but little money is actually paid on either side. Each family is called upon to maintain its members whilst on the duties of the cordon, and their wives and children who remain at home; and for this purpose the deduction from the land-tax just mentioned, which amounts to twelve guldens yearly, is made. When in actual service, the soldier is maintained by government, and six guldens are struck off from the land-tax of the family; no remuneration whatever is made to the family or individual when called upon to free the country from banditti. Each landholder is obliged to labour himself for a day, or with cattle for half a day, for each joch which he possesses; this labour being employed in making roads, in embanking rivers, clearing forests, cultivating the mulberry plantations, felling timber, and such like public works. The payment of a small fixed sum is in many cases allowed instead of actual labour, but if the labour due from the possessors of lands is insufficient for the requisite work, the government may call upon individuals to labour at least twelve days in the year, at a rate also fixed by law. Except, however, in cases of most urgent necessity, this labour cannot be exacted during the period either of sowing or of harvest. There are, besides the taxes and services now mentioned, several others due from irregular possessors of lands with-

in the frontier districts, from the clergy, and from all mechanics and tradesmen, which amount to a considerable sum.

In each company, an *agricultural officer* is appointed, who has no military rank, but remains always at home to superintend the cultivation of the land, and regulate and collect the contributions of the different families. Under this officer are placed eleven agricultural corporals, whose duty it is to make known his regulations, and to see them carried into effect. The officers are, however, all men who have served in the army, so that, in cases of extreme necessity, they may be able to lead the corps of reserve into the field; a duty which is generally entrusted to extraordinary officers appointed for that purpose.

The agricultural officer visits all the families in the company every fortnight, and informs the captain respecting their condition and wants. The captain, with the officer, makes this round every month. The staff-officer, in the same way, visits six companies every three months, and the colonel makes a yearly circuit through the whole regiment.

In order to facilitate the administration of justice in all disputes respecting matters of small value, a court is held weekly in each company, at which the captain presides: composed of the chief agricultural officer, the sergeant-major, two sergeants, two agricultural corporals, and some heads of families appointed by the colonel. The parties are generally satisfied with the decisions of this court, but if otherwise, have the power of appealing to a higher tribunal, to which matters of greater importance are always referred in the first instance, and where lawyers, though invested with military costume, are the auditors and judges.

In criminal cases, slight offences come either under the cognizance of the court just mentioned, or of the officer of the

regiment, according as the offender is enrolled or not; but, in more serious cases, a court is instituted, which consists of a chief of battalion as president, an auditor, two captains, two sergeant-majors, two sergeants, two corporals, and two privates; but the judgment of this court must be confirmed by the colonel of the regiment, who is not permitted to take any share in the proceedings of the court; and, previous to the infliction of capital punishment, except in cases where prompt examples are necessary, the judgment must be sanctioned by the approval of the commander-general.

The whole population of the country subject to this curious and interesting system of government, amounted, in 1807, to 777,406, and, after the concession made to France in 1809, the remaining frontier was estimated at 488,844, giving an army of about 80,000 men, well accustomed to the climate, and fitted for the service in which they are to act; and although, since the reign of Maria Theresia, this army has never been called upon to oppose the Turks, it has been carefully maintained, and has on many occasions been of great service in putting a stop to communication when the plague has raged in the south, and in preventing contraband trade between the adjacent countries.

About five o'clock we arrived at Ludbregh, a small market town, the property of Fürst (or Prince) Batthyani, one of the richest of the Hungarian nobles, who possesses between twenty and thirty estates in Hungary, Austria, and Croatia. The Prince himself never resides on this property, as might easily be conjectured, from the ruined state of the Château, and the buildings connected with it. I called at the house of the chief engineer, to whom I had a letter of introduction, but he was gone from home. His wife, however, received me with kind-

ness, and, desiring her daughter to bring me wine, sent in search of another officer to accompany me.

Ludbregh does not afford much matter of interest. The picturesque cottages are prettily grouped about the river which runs by its side, but their inhabitants were at that time miserably poor. In spite of much assistance afforded by their lord, many were obliged to eat bread made of a mixture of millet-seed, and the spike of the maize, and some were reported to have actually died of want. The chief produce of this part of the country is wine, but the Prince is making extensive and successful experiments in the fattening of cattle, an object most remarkably neglected in the whole Austrian dominions, where it is calculated, that not one out of twenty of the cattle which are killed has undergone any preparatory feeding to fit it for the market. This neglect, without entering into the question of the advantage to be derived from excessive feeding, must be admitted to be alike injurious both to the farmer and to the country, as large sums are annually expended in purchasing cattle from Poland, Moldavia, and Walachia. The stalls of Prince Batthyani are excellently managed, and the cattle remarkable for size and condition. After working the oxen till they arrive at their full size, they put them up to fatten, and never afterwards suffer them to leave the stall, gradually improving the quality of their food, till it consists of a mixture of rye and the winnowings of maize, keeping them in a state of the most perfect cleanliness, and preserving their tranquillity with so much care, that no one is permitted to disturb their rest, or enter the stalls, before ten o'clock in the morning. The cattle here fed are sent by short stages to the market of Vienna, which is chiefly supplied with the few fat cattle it consumes from the distant provinces.

The inn at which I stopt was kept by a Jew, and was clean-

er and more comfortable than most I had seen; it was rented from the Prince, and the innkeeper was forced to sell his wine only, upon which he was allowed a very small per-centage.

I could not see much of my conductor in the morning, for he was obliged to go to some distance to divide the little personal property of a deceased peasant between his two sons, who could not agree to live together.

Before noon I procured horses from the post which the prince keeps in his own hands, and we proceeded over a good road, though not so uniformly excellent as that on which we travelled the day before. The scenery was very similar to that of England, with the exception of the low hills covered with vineyards to the right. In a retired valley, we passed the residence of Graf Inka, and arrived, after a time, safely at Kapronczа. The post-house was at a short distance from the town, and not far from it the inn to which I drove. The town itself is a small fortress, most singularly tranquil, not a person stirring within it. The fortification consists of a quadrangular mound covered with grass, about thirty feet high, with a small square bastion at each corner. This encloses two churches and about twenty houses, all very irregularly placed, and intermixed with little plots of garden ground surrounded by fences of timber, and full of fruit trees now in blossom. The irregular intervening spaces are entirely neglected and overgrown with grass. Wishing to go to Csurgo, which is out of the high road, the master of the post, as is common in such cases, refused to find the horses, and I was obliged to make an engagement with a peasant.

I could obtain no certain information respecting the distance. As, however, the man himself with whom I had bargained, said that I should perform the journey in three hours, I resolved to set off, although the afternoon was already far ad-

vanced, in spite of all the stories related of robbers and banditti, by which the Hungarians and Croats seem delighted to vilify their countrymen.

I soon discovered that the driver had never before travelled this road. His ignorance was obvious, and I unfortunately could neither supply his deficiency, nor make myself understood by him. We passed a small town, composed of the most picturesque cottages, built in half squares, with rude piazzas on their sides, and all the usual accompaniments. The country was quite flat, and we crossed three arms of the river by bridges which had undergone temporary repair since the ravages of the autumnal floods, and many boats were lying on the shore to facilitate the passage when the waters were high. No sooner had we passed the river, than a man, looking from the window of a little hut, a hundred yards to the left, summoned the postillion, who obeyed the call and soon returned, intimating that my passport was required. At first, from the lonely situation, and the insignificant appearance of the whole establishment, I felt sceptical as to the authority which was assumed. However, on perceiving the emblems of military form displayed in the cottage, I submitted to treat, and was shewn a very strict order, lately issued by the military commandant, to examine all who passed this frontier line of Hungary; but a new difficulty now arose, for the guard could not translate the passport, which was written in Latin. He permitted me to become the interpreter, and having copied the signatures, names, and numbers, as well as he could, allowed me to proceed.

The road led over an extensive plain, chiefly cultivated with maize. We passed a large village, with many gypsey residences, and entered a fine oak forest. The day was already beginning to close; our horses were fatigued; the driver irre-

solute from ignorance of the road; and the clouds, which had been collecting all the afternoon, seemed now preparing to pour forth a tremendous storm. All this gradually increased, and my servant began to remind me of the accounts of robbers we had heard, and more than once expressed his alarms, as he saw peasants approaching us. There was certainly one moment when I had agreed with him, in my own mind, that we were on the point of being challenged, in which case, we might have become an easy prey, as our pistols had been so long loaded, that, in all probability, they would not have served us much. Happily, however, this alarm passed like the others. The three men who had excited it, drew up along the road, and surveyed the carriage. I wished them a good night, and was not sorry to see that they made no attempt to follow. It soon became so totally dark, with such an incessant noise of thunder and of rain, that, had we been surrounded by banditti, we should not have perceived an individual, unless when the lightning threw its gleams amongst the trees. Hitherto we had been guided by a regular alley, cut in the forest for the security of travellers, who, on account of its width, cannot, in the day time at least, be attacked perfectly unawares. But the storm, the night, and the forest, all rendered it so obscure, that the postillion having dismounted, and attempted, for some time, to feel out the way and lead the horses, found that impracticable, and was obliged to stand quietly at their heads till the storm cleared away. When the darkness became a little less intense we proceeded, and, still in the midst of rain and lightning, reached Csurgo. At so late an hour, I would willingly have taken up my quarters, for the night, in the inn, but the only room was already occupied by some travelling merchants, who were come to trade with the inhabitants. Under these circumstances, I presented myself

to the Hofrichter, for this is again an estate of Graf Festetits, who had taken care to secure for me a hearty reception. The Hofrichter was at supper. He first invited me to join him in his repast, and then conducting me to the rooms which the Graf was accustomed to occupy on his visits at the estate, left me in comfort for the night. When I rose in the morning, I could scarcely quit my chamber, before I found myself in the midst of prisoners, walking about in their chains,—the prison being here under the same roof with the dwelling-house. The family of the Graf never resides at Csurgo; it is the central office of the estate, and every third or fourth year, the proprietor spends some days in surveying the agricultural improvements conducted by his direction. The house is a large building, chiefly on the ground-floor, and occupied by several of the different officers.

About eight o'clock, the Hofrichter took me in his calash drawn by four horses, to make a tour of the estate; but before we set out, a circumstance came to my knowledge, which convinced me that my apprehensions respecting robbers in the forest, on the preceding night, had not been altogether groundless; for when the travelling merchants arrived at the town, about a hour later than ourselves, they said they had been stopped by three men, who were proceeding to plunder their carriage, when another light vehicle, with their servants, coming up, the robbers ran off in alarm, leaving behind them a large cloak and pistols, which the travellers secured, and brought as trophies to Csurgo.

One of the most striking circumstances connected with the estate over which I was this day conducted, is its extent. In this single estate, the owner has no less than 95,000 joch of land, of which 49,000 are forest, and the rest, in some part, pasture, but chiefly cultivated with grain. The culture of grain

is generally managed according to the Hungarian plan, of fallow every third year; but where the extent is so great, instead of manuring every sixth year, it often happens that twenty years intervene; because it is quite impossible to convert into manure straw enough for the purpose; and because, with the scanty population, and the present relative value of labour and produce, it is not found practicable to employ hands sufficient to manure the sixth part of the arable land, perhaps amounting to 3000 acres, every year. The manure is obtained from the winter stalls of the sheep, horned cattle, and horses. These stalls, and the yards connected with them, are generally situated in dry flat places, and are daily covered with fresh litter, of which none is removed till the spring is far advanced, when the whole is carried together, forming large heaps in the middle of the yard. This labour was going on at the time of my visit, and troops of 30 or 40 peasants were assembled under the inspection of the Heiducks. They lay the manure in an inclined plane, and continue heaping it till it becomes a large hillock. In spite, however, of this determined consumption, I saw the yards full of straw ricks, which no profusion in littering the cattle during winter could convert into manure.

Although the greater part of the estate is cultivated on the ordinary Hungarian principle, the Graf is very anxious to introduce, as much as possible, the English rotation of crops, and has for this purpose, not far from the town of Csurgo, set apart eleven divisions, each of 60 joch. In another part of the estate he has a small course of $2\frac{1}{2}$ joch in each lot. In another again, are seven plots of 100 joch each, also eleven pieces of 50 joch, besides a smaller set of plots of 4 joch each, for trying experiments; and, as he has introduced this mode on all his estates, he has now above 5000 joch devoted to trials of this kind. Thus the utility of this system of agriculture is

likely to be brought to the most complete, and probably successful test. The Graf's extensive possessions, as well as the firmness of his character, give every reason to believe that it will not be relinquished hastily, whilst his liberal mind and determined patriotism will secure to his country a just estimate of the value of this innovation. There seems to be considerable objection made to it in Hungary, and I am inclined to believe, not entirely without reason. The fact is, that the market for agricultural produce is very confined, and scarcely affords a demand for the variety and quantity of produce arising from this system, so that the expences of additional labour may not with any certainty be paid. The want of population creates both a want of labourers and of consumers; the price of labour is too high in proportion to the value of produce; and yet the peasant is paid in such a way that he loses the benefit of this disproportion, and obtains only an uncertain and inadequate remuneration. The occupancy of a joch of good land for a year, may be obtained for little more than three days labour. The peasants on this estate have 485 whole sessions of land allotted to them, many of which are divided. These are distributed in 14 villages. The amount of their labour is 50,440 days. Each of these peasants has 24 joch of arable land, and 8 or 12 of meadow land, besides free use of wood, and eight acres of common land, or, instead of that, is permitted to feed his cattle in certain parts of the forest. The peasants, then, are paid 16,000 joch of good land, besides the wood and common, for 50,440 days work, which is nearly, as I have stated, a joch for three days' work. This labour is not sufficient for the estate of Csurgo, which requires 76,000 days, and 20 ploughmen are accordingly paid by the year. The remainder of the labour either comes from robot due from the pea-

sants as pay for extra land, or some other favour received, is the result of penalties, or is paid for by the lord at the regulated price. If means were adopted for encouraging population in Hungary; if the political and civil arrangements were such, that the great landholders might be enabled and induced to divide their enormous estates, and to let them on given rents to farmers, it is impossible to calculate what prodigious incomes might be derived from them. But as long as the present system prevails, the population must be limited, the land badly cultivated, and the revenue derived from it comparatively trifling.

The extensive plains of this country, covered with the same species of grain, form a majestic feature in the scenery; and as we drove through the estate, the eye could scarcely reach beyond the extent of rye on the one side, and wheat on the other. The former was thin, owing to the fall of snow before the ground was frozen, which always, when it happens, spoils great part of the seed. The only good crops were on lands where sheep had been folded. The sheep are usually penned for two nights on the same spot, and then driven to another: nothing could be more marked than the benefit derived from this practice. The wheat was in much better condition than the rye, although it likewise was yellow, from a total want of rain during the last month.

It may be useful to mention the rates of produce in grain obtained in this part of Hungary, accounts of which are carefully kept on the estate. It should be noticed, however, that the year from which these instances are taken, was very unfavourable.

One joch of wheat yielded $14\frac{50}{76}$ metzen, in which case each grain sown produced $10\frac{23}{93}$ grains. Another yielded

$13\frac{10}{76}$ metzen, each grain producing $6\frac{105}{124}$ grains. A third yielded $9\frac{22}{76}$ metzen. A fourth yielded $5\frac{14}{76}$ metzen.

One joch of rye yielded 16 metzen; each grain producing $8\frac{2}{5}$ grains. Another yielded $4\frac{70}{76}$ metzen. A third yielded $2\frac{18}{76}$ metzen. But these two pieces had suffered much from a hail-storm. Another joch of rye yielded $9\frac{14}{76}$ metzen; and another yielded $6\frac{11}{76}$.

One joch of barley yielded $15\frac{51}{76}$ metzen; and another, $9\frac{7}{76}$ metzen.

One joch of oats yielded $16\frac{8}{76}$ metzen; another $19\frac{62}{76}$ metzen; a third $8\frac{41}{76}$ metzen.

One joch of maize yielded $21\frac{64}{76}$ metzen, each grain producing 112 grains. This was a bad crop, for not unfrequently maize yields 33 metzen from the joch.

It is always difficult to speak with precision on the average produce of land; but, from these examples, we shall at least see some of the greatest, and some of the least produce in an unfavourable year, which will give a tolerable idea of the general average; for, in the worst year, the highest produce will not be very distant from the highest produce of a favourable season; the difference being chiefly, that, in the one, the greater number of acres bear a bad, and in the other, a good crop. The extreme cases in each, will probably not differ very materially. The average derived from these cases is certainly small, and is far from being equal to the crops which are stated as the usual produce of the estate of Fellenberg in Switzerland, of whom I have spoken as one equally emulous of agricultural improvement with Graf Festetits. The acre of meadow land there yields from 60 to 80 centners of hay and after-grass. Winter wheat yields 14 fold; rye $19\frac{1}{2}$; winter barley $26\frac{1}{2}$; summer wheat 12, and potatoes 25 fold. This

estate is comparatively small, and is under the constant care of its owner, who resides upon it.

In the course of the morning we visited several of the sheep folds and farm-yards, which were placed in the different villages on the estate of Csurgo; we likewise called upon some of the officers stationed in the more distant parts of the territory; and at two o'clock arrived at Tarany, a farm-house, inhabited by one of the *Rentmeisters*, or under stewards, around which were a number of cottages. It appeared that the good lady of the house had been informed of our approach, and had prepared a dinner for our reception. It was good country fare, broth and boiled meat; sour crout made a necessary part of the repast, and a bottle of the country wine, better than usual, was drawn for the guests. The conversation during dinner was chiefly in Hungarian; but the language was sometimes varied, out of kindness to me.

After dinner and coffee, having taken a short tour in the carriages round the part of the estate adjoining the house of our host, we returned home by the forest of Belevar. On our road, we halted in a little valley to see one of Graf Festetits bee-houses, of which he has several in different situations. The keeper lived in a neighbouring cottage, and, poor as she was, her abode bespoke much attention to neatness. The articles of furniture were few, but the bedstead was heaped high with beds to be spread at night for the children. A loom, of the most simple rustic appearance, in which she was weaving coarse cloth, and a stove of the usual Hungarian concave bricks, almost filled the room. The bees, her charge, were disposed in conical hives, round a hollow square space, where they were protected by a thatched roof. This contained a great number of hives, of which the richest, I was informed

sometimes weighed a centner, and was worth at least 60 florins.

The care of bees has, of late, excited interest in the Austrian territories, and the government has, within the last fifty years, done its utmost to call the attention of the people to this source of profit. This is another illustration of the mode in which the government is accustomed to exert a direct interference with the affairs of its subjects, pointing out the most minute objects worthy of pursuit. Matters, which in England form the topics of cheerful conversation amongst a society of clergymen and farmers, assembled in some remote village, on the borders of Dartmoor, purple with heath, where they celebrate, over a glass of the richest mead, the anniversary of their apiarian labours, recount their successes, and reward their meritorious companions,—form in Austria the basis of imperial decrees, which put the hand mechanically into action, but produce little emulation in the mind.

In the year 1769, a public school was opened in the Augarten, near Vienna, which all might attend who chose to receive instruction in the management of bees, both in theory and practice. In 1775 this was transferred to the gardens of the palace of the Belvedere; and it was determined to institute similar schools in the different provinces. Accordingly, in this and the following year, schools were established at Wiener-Neustadt, and at Prague, the masters of which were paid a fixed salary, and were required to communicate their knowledge freely, and to give regular reports of their proceedings to the government. At the same time, every encouragement was given to the keepers of bees: it was publicly recommended to landed proprietors to encourage their peasantry in the pursuit; no tithes were to be taken from this species of stock, and the proprietors of lands

were not allowed to prohibit the possessors of hives from bringing them to feed on their fields; the robbing of hives was made a capital crime, and in many other ways the property was defended. In 1781, the schools were relinquished, but shortly afterwards, premiums were offered to those who should rear the greatest number of bees. In 1787, the public officers in Bohemia were particularly directed to encourage the breeding of bees, both by their advice and example. In 1792, the premiums having been found insufficient, were no longer given; but, in 1803, other rewards were offered in Galicia;—50 florins for every one who should rear 100; and 25 for every one rearing 50 stocks. The encouragements, however, which most nearly concern the country which we are now surveying, are those which were held out in 1808, to the inhabitants of the Hungarian military frontiers. In this year, the Chief War Commissary, Brosig, at Peterwardein, wrote a popular work upon the care of bees, which, by command of the emperor, was translated into the common languages of the country, and distributed gratuitously. At the same time, the following rewards were offered to those who should turn their attention to the rearing of bees:

For every 40 stocks,	10 florins
60	15
80	20
100	25

It was also made known, that, if any schoolmaster in the military frontiers, had time and inclination to cultivate bees, he should receive four stocks at the imperial expence, upon condition that he should manage them according to the directions given—that he should give practical instructions

to his scholars,—and that, in the 2d, 3d, 4th, and 5th years, he should give, to the boy who distinguished himself most in this pursuit, a good hive of honey, weighing 30 pfunds. The result of these regulations was very favourable. In 1808, the whole number of bee stocks in the military frontiers amounted to 118,157; and in 1808, it had increased to 129,150; and 1630 florins were distributed in premiums. In 1809, a part of the frontiers had been ceded to the French, and the part which remained yielded 100,226 stocks, which increased in the following year to 107,226. Of these,

The province of Varasdin produced	10,109
of Slavonia	55,107
of the Banat	27,194
of Transylvania	14,816

An account was published of the premiums distributed, from which it appeared, that, in the province of Varasdin, 3 houses had obtained the 10 florins; and 1 the reward of 20 florins. In the province of Slavonia, 100 had obtained the 10 florins premium; 29 the second reward; 10 the third; and 27 the highest.—In the Banat frontier, 87 had obtained the first; 39 the second; 14 the third; and 25 the highest.—In the Transylvanian frontier, 5 had secured the first; 1 the second; and 1 the third.

The most successful candidates were in the German Banat regiment, where

Szava Attanaczkovich reared	172 stocks
Nitja Subich - -	175
David Schivkovich -	200

The whole premiums amounted to 4955 florins, of which

the German Banat regiment alone got 1755, and the regiment of Peterwardein 2030.

The exertions made by the inhabitants of the military frontiers had an effect over Hungary, and the produce throughout the empire has manifestly increased within the last ten years. I am not, however, prepared to give any statement of its present actual amount. The following passage, cited from Bisinger, will give some idea of its amount in 1807. "The annual produce of wax in Austria, is estimated at 6000 centners; that of honey at 110,000 centners; of which Galicia, the Bukowina, Hungary, Transylvania, Carinthia, Bohemia, and Moravia, yield the greater part; and the produce of the little principality of Brechtesgaden appears to be considerable, as bee-keeping is a favourite occupation with the inhabitants of that territory. It is there not unusual for a single peasant to possess above 30 stocks. The culture of bees is no where conducted with so little skill and attention as in Galicia and the Bukowina, where they are left in the forests almost to the care of nature; in spite of which the annual produce and trade in honey and wax in these provinces is so important, that, from the single town of Mikulince, above 36,000 pfunds; and from Pomorzany, more than 250 centners of wax, with as many eimers of honey, are annually sent to Vienna. The most important manufacture of mead is at Leutschau, and the greatest honey market at Rosenau in Hungary, which country receives annually from foreign states, 300,000 florins for wax and honey. By attention to the increase of bees, and better care in their management, Austria might not only furnish her own consumption in these articles, but might derive from them a beneficial trade."

In Hungary, it would appear, that the Banat and the Arader and Békescher Comitatus, are the most productive of honey;

and many years ago the annual quantity sold at Bekesch alone amounted to 500 eimers, and some proprietors in this comitatus possess from 200 to 300 stocks. It is here the custom to bury the hives in the earth during the winter, which is found to preserve the bees. In the summer, it is customary, throughout Hungary, to transport them from place to place, in order that they may find better food; and particularly, to place them near fields of buck-wheat in blossom, or woods in which the lime-tree abounds.

Rohrer, in his account of the Jews in Austria, gives some facts connected with the subject now before us, and referring to the mode of preparing honey adopted in Moldavia and the Bukowina.

"A second very interesting trade," says this author, "which many of the Jews of Galicia carry on, and to which I cannot sufficiently call the attention of my countrymen, is the trade in honey. We have been desirous of knowing the secret by which M. von Ehrenberg at Vienna promises to obtain a sugar from honey devoid of its peculiar flavour. It requires no secret; nature does this in the Ukraine in Moldavia, and in our provinces of the Bukowina, and Sirmien. The Jews have long understood this. The distillers of Rosoglio at Danzig, are known and celebrated; but perhaps it is less generally understood, that this precious Danzig water is prepared solely from honey. As we are accustomed in Vienna to boil sugar in water, then to skim it well, and at last, with the purified syrup to mix the spirit, so in Danzig the same operation is performed with honey instead of sugar. The Jews of Galicia send honey, which has all the properties of sugar, as white and hard as sugar itself, in casks containing 6 centners, each centner worth 25½ guldens in Moldavia. The manipulation which this undergoes in Moldavia is simply to expose the honey,

purified from its wax, during some weeks in the winter, to the open air; it then becomes hard, and as white as snow. The bees have here an opportunity, as in the Ukraine, of feeding in the lime forests; and from the blossom of this tree, and that of the vine, they extract a honey, at first yellow, but afterwards becoming the hard white substance of which many hundred centners are purchased every year by the Jews, and forwarded to Danzig. The most celebrated distiller in Galicia, Leib Mimeles, at Lemberg, from whom the Italian dealers themselves purchase rosoglio, has no other sugar or syrup in his whole cellar than that procured from honey. Of this he has always many casks in store. He takes out a piece of this honey, boils it in water, and skims it, and after this the honey water does not again spontaneously harden. The Jews employ this syrup in their spirits without impairing the transparency, or imparting any peculiar flavour. The white hard honey is also much used in Moldavia with coffee."

How far the simple process described by Rohrer actually changes in any way the properties of the honey, I cannot say; but a somewhat more complicated, though still simple, method was proposed at Vienna in 1810 by Dr Jassnüger for purifying this substance. After boiling two pfunds and a half of bruised oak-bark with 30 mass (about 7½ gallons) of water in a copper vessel during two hours, he added 25 pfunds of the common purified honey. This was well boiled over a gentle fire, frequently stirred, and the scum carefully removed, then strained through a thick flannel while warm, and the strained fluid evaporated to the thickness of a syrup. By this means a pure clear syrup was obtained, without any flavour of honey, and, in all respects, equal to the best syrups of commerce; and if it is desired to procure a more colourless syrup, half an ounce of finely pulverized charcoal is added to each pfund of

the fluid after straining, which is then gently boiled for an hour, and again strained. If this syrup be suffered to remain quiet for six or seven months in a cool place, a hard crystalline species of sugar separates itself, which, the professor says, is fit for all household purposes, and is quite as harmless as sugar itself.

The forest of Belevar, which we now entered, is one of the finest in Hungary. It is situated on the Drave, and consists chiefly of different species of oak, intermixed with a variety of other forest trees, and amongst them a considerable number of beech and maple. The trees are the most luxuriant I ever beheld. Thousands of oaks which, when measured several feet above the root, are more than seven feet in diameter, continue almost of the same size without throwing out a branch to the height of thirty, forty, and fifty feet, and are still in the most flourishing and healthy condition.

In these secluded forests, timber has but little value. Trunks of the largest trees lie strewed in every direction upon the ground where the storm has laid them, and from their mouldering substance, the forest derives new vigour. In cutting timber the hatchet is always employed, and by this several feet are quite lost towards the roots. Indeed, it is the object of the proprieor to clear away many parts of the outskirts of the forest, and, during the last sixty years, great additions have been made to the land capable of cultivation; and extensive tracts round the forest are still to be seen, where the trees have been brought to the ground, partly by cutting and partly by fire, studded over with the blackened stumps projecting a few feet above the surface; yet no one is allowed to employ the wood without the permission of the Hofrichter. Some parts of the forest are now regularly felled by successive annual portions; whence materials are derived

for an extensive cooperage, which employs many workmen at Csurgo ; and in one of the villages on the outskirts are eighteen families of hoop-makers, who receive in payment one half of the hoops they make. The casks here manufactured are far more than necessary for the estate, and the remainder are sold, or exchanged with the peasants for wine.

Another source of profit is the gall-nuts and the *knoppern*, which are likewise gall-nuts growing from the calyx of the acorn. These are sold for many thousand florins every year, for the use of the tanneries. They are generally purchased by Jews, who have to collect them in the forests for themselves ; and then send them to distant markets, both into Austria and other neighbouring countries. This is an article of export, which, in the whole of Hungary, amounts to about 200,000 metzen annually. Above all, however, the forests are of importance, as affording pasture for cattle during the summer, when the sun is very powerful. At this season, almost all the cattle of the estate are driven into them, and remain under the keepers of different descriptions for three or four months. Thus, in the forest of Belevar, there are above 700 horned cattle kept for breeding ; about 150 horses, and large droves of swine, and flocks of sheep. Besides these, belonging to the lord, there are great numbers the property of the peasantry, who either have a right by law to turn in their cattle, or have acquired that right by purchase,—a permission which is obtained at a higher price during the time that the acorns are upon the ground. With respect to the general features of these forests, they vary much, sometimes presenting deep labyrinths of wood, intersected by paths worn by herdsmen and their flocks, but requiring most experienced guides to conduct the traveller through their mazes ; at others, affording magnificent grove scenery, and opening like a wooded park, with trees group-

ed in beautiful variety by the unassisted hand of nature. The herbage was luxuriant wherever an opening amongst the trees permitted the partial influence of the air and sun ; and, amidst the numerous flowers which were bursting into blossom, the white asphodel, growing in rich clusters, formed a prominent and beautiful feature.

I have already spoken of the great importance of the forests in Austria and Hungary, and of the attention which has been paid of late years to their preservation. The whole land occupied by forest in the Austrian monarchy, is estimated at at 24,000,000 joch, of which Hungary alone has 8,900,000, and in Galicia, above 30,000 joch of forest in some cases belong to a single estate. In Hungary, the most extensive are found in the Gömör, Weszprim, Beregh, Unghvar, Marmaros, and Liptau counties, and also in Croatia. The forest of Belevar is perhaps as noble an example of these wild tracts as any which Hungary produces, and, in various points of view, affords an instructive illustration of the condition of Hungarian forests. It points out in a particular manner the almost insurmountable difficulties of deriving any thing which approaches to the just value of this fine timber, owing to the imperfect communication both by land and water, which obliges even the richest and most powerful proprietors to neglect their forests, or induces them to employ the finest timber, in purposes for which very inferior materials would be perfectly adequate. The number of large oaks, which are here consumed in buildings, in casks, and in poles for vines, is however but trifling when compared to that which is lost by decay, or destroyed by the hatchet, or by fire; and the forests of Hungary would still yield an abundant supply for all the wants of the country, if water carriage could be established. In the mean time, the want of timber is severely felt. Its price in

the large towns is increased threefold in the last 20 years, and many mines and manufactures have been given up in consequence. The Hungarian statistical writers, who speak with great anxiety on this subject, are sometimes inclined to go into extremes in the objects of their calculation, and more than one of them has looked with jealousy on the consumption of timber in the construction of coffins, for the 222,222 individuals who are supposed annually to die in the Hungarian dominions. It is perhaps with more cause that they dread the extension of the manufacture of potash, of which already above 30,000 centners are annually prepared, chiefly in the comitatus of Beregh.

Returning towards Csurgo, we passed a long canal which the Graf has cut, in order to effect an extensive drainage, and in which is collected a stream of water, afterwards employed for working mills. Many of the landed proprietors have latterly adopted this amongst other means of agricultural improvement, and several large tracts in Hungary have in this way been rendered capable of cultivation. One of the most successful attempts of the kind is that made by the Duke Albert of Saxe-Teschen, on his estate on the banks of Carascza, to the south of Mohacs, which, after a labour of several years, was completed in 1811, having drained 5702 joch of useless marsh, and converted it into excellent land. This work is executed with great skill, and the water in its course is employed to turn several mills.

The day was quite closed when we reached Csurgo, and during the whole of our tour we had seen but one small portion of land which did not belong to the same estate. The next morning the Hofrichter could not accompany me, as it was Saturday, and he was obliged to preside at his weekly court, where all the officers from remote parts of the estate assemble to give an account of what has passed dur-

ing the week, and to receive further orders. I was therefore put under the care of the *Rent-meister*, who took me again into the forest and fields, in order to shew the cattle and horses, which we had not seen in our tour the day before; but which were now collected in certain places to give me an opportunity of inspecting them. At a village on the outskirts of the forest we took up the chief keeper of the cows to be our guide, and, as the *Rent-meister* told me, our protector against banditti. We found a drove of horses, which, for the first four years had been suffered to run wild, brought within an enclosure. To my surprise, amongst the attendants I observed one of the men I had in the morning seen in irons. They informed me that he was only released for the time, because he alone understood the management of a horse that was unwell; but that, when free from his chains, he was always under the guard of a Heiduck. His crime had been stealing two oxen, with which he was found at a distant fair, so that his punishment would eventually be severe; yet, whilst under such a stigma, he was allowed to associate thus familiarly with his former companions. Amongst the spectators one wore a turban and carried in his belt four massive pistols, while his two companions, who seemed to be his inferiors, were each armed with a pistol and a stiletto. These I found to be pig-merchants, Servians from the Turkish frontier, conducting a drove of fine swine to another part of Hungary; a traffic, carried on to so great an extent, that, in the year 1802, 278,415 head of swine passed the Turkish Hungarian borders, feeding in the forests in that part of Hungary, and afterwards sold at the markets of Œdenburg and Vienna. This breed of swine, perhaps, approaches nearly to perfection,—wide on the loins and pin, deep and thick on the shoulders, short in the neck and legs,

fine in the bone, and in other respects resembling the Chinese breed, but very much larger.

We now proceeded further into the forest, and presently heard the bellowing of cattle, which, as they were driven by the keepers, came galloping towards the open plain on which we stood. They are of the true Hungarian breed, of a light grey colour, nearly approaching to white, with black ears, long horns, and a black tip to the tail. These animals are suffered to run over the forests for pasture, attended by men and dogs, until the snow covers the ground, at which time they are brought to enclosures in the villages, and fed with straw, having one feed of hay during the twenty-four hours. Whilst in the forest, the only article with which they are supplied, in addition to the natural herbage, is salt, distributed at the rate of a pfund per head monthly, to the herdsmen, mixed with a small quantity of sulphur, with a view to prevent the salt from being applied to other purposes.

The cows are kept merely for breeding, and the young cattle are separated from them every year, and, until a productive age, kept distinct from the rest. These herds of cattle, or *gulya*, are frequent in this part of Hungary. In the course of our drive, we met two cows wandering wildly in the forest, looking in every direction, snuffing the air, and lowing continually. They had just lost their calves. The keeper gave me a singular account of their conduct under such circumstances. The mother no sooner perceives her loss than she appears distressed; the first day she seems to search for her calf with hope; the second she becomes disappointed and frantic; and the third, still pursues her solitary search, after which she returns to the herd, gradually becomes tran-

quil and composed, and associates again with her former companions.

We likewise saw in the forest some droves of swine, which, even thus early in the year, find a plentiful supply of food in the acorns which have been covered by leaves and snow during winter. These are likewise under the care of keepers, who remain with them for months together, almost without shelter or protection from the weather.

It is not the first time that I have spoken of this uncultivated and half savage race of men. Their outward appearance is exactly drawn in Bredetzky's compilation. " The Forests of the Schümegher comitatus, says this writer, are seldom perfectly secure, as they are disturbed not only by banditti, but by the shepherds of this district. The mode of life of these men, who are from childhood almost constantly the keepers of cattle, and during the summer seldom approach the habitations of men, appears to have debased them so much, that, even in this country, uncultivated as it is, they are considered as a tribe of savages. If, however, the Schmümegher Juház has often been dangerous to the traveller, it is to be hoped that the new regulations of police and security introduced by the Comitatus, and which, under the most active and estimable Obergespann Graf Franz Széchényi, have already produced much good, will be finally instrumental in putting a stop entirely to the evil.

The dress of one of these cattle-keepers consists of a shirt and wide trowsers of coarse linen, rendered stiff, and of a dark dirty colour, by the grease with which they are purposely imbued. Their object in thus besmearing the clothes, is to render them more durable, and to prevent vermin from harbouring in them, as well as to guard the person against the bites of gnats; whatever the object may be, they

are seldom changed before they are ready to fall in pieces. The feet are enveloped in wool, over which they bind on the sole a piece of leather fastened by straps, exactly as the missionary Vanderkemp represents the shoes of the Caffres. Besides a round hat frequently ornamented with a ribbon, and a large mantle of thick coarse woollen cloth, for here they seldom use sheep skin cloaks, they are also provided with a leathern pocket, hanging by a broad belt over the shoulder, and carry, for offence and defence, a small axe fastened to a long handle. The broad belt by which the pocket hangs, is generally adorned with two or three rows of shining metal buttons, for which these herdsmen are so eager, that they have often been known to fall upon travellers for the sake of them alone. The axe serves them in place of a stick, and, in time of need, becomes a formidable weapon against man or beast. They understand the management of the instrument so well, that, at the distance of 20 or 30 paces, they seldom miss a mark set up against the trunk of a tree. I have often wondered at their skill in this exercise, but they are constantly practising it while their flocks are feeding. These men are still more careful in besmearing the hair of their head with grease than even their dress, and they then tie it up in knots, hanging on each side below the ear. Their ignorance is excessive, and perhaps one of the best measures for reclaiming them, would be to devise some means for their education."

On returning home, my conductor joined the Hofrichter's court, and I was soon after summoned to dinner. Here I met the Engineer and Fiscal, besides several inferior officers, who were permitted to eat their dinner with us, but sat silent, and soon retired, leaving us in possession of the table, and making bows as they rose. We afterwards walked over the vineyards,

and having driven with my host to see some agricultural experiments, returned by a part of the village where a number of gypsies possess cottages.

I was rather disappointed with the state in which I found these people, whom I had been taught to consider asrepaying much better in this part of Hungary than elsewhere, the pains bestowed upon their improvement. But here I found them quite unchanged. Nothing can induce them to join in regular labour. Some little services of activity and exertion, and some mechanical employments, are the only occupations in which they can be trusted; so that at present, they hold their habitations under the protection of the landlord, upon no condition of stated work, but under the generally implied obligation of being always ready at the call of his officers, by whom they are commonly employed in building cottages, repairing waggons, and carrying dispatches.

As in other places, they have a ruler of their own, through whom the officers of the estate call upon them for their services. This chief magistrate made his appearance as we entered one of their cottages, and we were quickly surrounded by the whole colony. Never was a greater appearance of external misery and of internal cheerfulness exhibited in the same beings, than amongst these people. In their persons dirty, and scantily covered with rags; their miserable habitations afford but a single cavity, in which five, six, or seven live together. I could see no stock of food, no comforts. They danced, they sang, and continued their boisterous mirth till we regained the carriage, and drove away, telling the ruler to come the following morning, and give a report of the number of gypsies he had within his jurisdiction, which extends over five villages,—a piece of information which he could not give without being allowed time to calculate.

In the evening, we surveyed the extensive wine cellars which ran under the whole residence, and afterwards visited the prison, of which I shall give a description. As it was late in the evening, the prisoners had already retired for the night. We entered by the keeper's room, which is hung round with heavy chains and irons; and in a kind of second anti-room, found a prisoner lying on the ground, to which he was chained. The keeper then unfastened a chain, which communicated with the inside, opened a grated door, and we entered a room, on the floor of which there was very little space unoccupied, for eight prisoners in their irons, and held together by the common chain, which was brought through the grating of the outer door, lay upon beds of straw. They naturally raised themselves to see the cause of such unusual intrusion, as they had all been called from their slumbers, if they were enjoying slumber, by the loud rattling of bars, and bolts and chains, caused by opening the door. One miserable object at the further corner of the dungeon, raised himself almost on his knees in a most supplicating attitude. He was a middle aged man, and his countenance was colourless. On enquiry, I found that he had now been some months condemned to death for murder, but his sentence awaited the confirmation of the court of Vienna. A second dungeon adjoining to this, bore exactly the same appearance, and likewise contained eight prisoners. This prison is upon a level with the ground, and, to render the walls perfectly secure, they are cased both within and without, with beams of timber about eight inches square, which likewise blocked up the greater part of the windows. Indeed, in the second dungeon, I believe no light is admitted, except by the door-way which opens to the other.

The prisoners are kept at the expence of the lord, and are allowed 1½ pfund of bread daily, with water, and twice or three times a-week a meal of meat.

The last Herren Stuhl had been held in March, about two months before, at which time there were 37 prisoners, of whom 19 had been committed since the previous Herren Stuhl in October. Some were dismissed, others punished by flogging, and some still remained, their punishment not being completed, making part of the seventeen I had seen in confinement.

The following morning the gypsey-chief made his appearance at the time appointed, bringing with him a piece of stick on which notches were cut, indicating the number of individuals under his care, which amounted to 120. Availing myself of the authority of my host, I took this opportunity to make some inquiries respecting the gypsey language, a subject of the first importance in forming our conjectures on the origin of this people. No one who has not had experience can well conceive the difficulty of gaining intelligible information from people so rude, upon the subject of their language. We all know how difficult it is to translate literally from one language into another; but with these people, who have never weighed the import of a single word, and scarcely know how to divide their phrases into words, it is laborious, and almost impossible. If you ask for a word, they give you a whole sentence; and on asking a second time, they give the sentence a totally different turn, or introduce some figure altogether new. Thus it was with our gypsey, who at length, tired of our questions, prayed most piteously to be released, which we granted him, only on condition of his returning in the evening; and it will be seen, by the shortness of the vocabulary which is preserved in the Appendix, how little, by our exertions, in five hours, we were enabled to extract from him.

Jortin justly remarks, that the parallel between the gypsies and the Jews, as nations who preserve themselves distinct from those amongst whom they are found, is very incomplete. "For

what comparison," he asks, " between the Jewish nation, and a collection of strollers of various countries, who perhaps have not existed as a body above 400 years; who, far from dogmatizing, seem to be of no religion at all; who never appeared in arms, and made themselves formidable; whom rags and contempt have secured from violent persecution, and who, at the worst, have been only driven from place to place, which to them was no great punishment, for frauds and petty larcenies." Still the condition and circumstances of the gypsey nation throughout the whole of Europe, may truly be considered amongst the most curious phenomena in the history of man; and Jortin seems scarcely to have been aware of its numbers, peculiarities, or common origin.

In the beginning of the fifteenth century, this people first attracted notice, and within a few years after their appearance had spread themselves over the whole Continent. The earliest mention which is made of them was in the years 1414 and 1417, when they were observed in Germany. In 1418, they were found in Switzerland; in 1422, in Italy; and in 1427, they are mentioned in the neighbourhood of Paris; and about the same time were observed in Spain. In England, they were not known till some time after. At the time of their first appearance, no correct information seems to have been obtained as to the country from which they came. It is however supposed, that they entered Europe in the south-east, probably through Transylvania. At first they represented themselves as Egyptian pilgrims, and, under that character, obtained considerable respect during half a century, being favoured by different potentates with passports, and letters of security. Gradually, however, they really became, or were fancied, troublesome; and Italy, Sweden, Denmark, Germany, and England, successively attempted their expulsion in the sixteenth century. It appears, by a letter preserved in Dr Nott's edition of

Lord Surrey's works, that, in 1545, the King of France entertained an idea of embodying *four thousand* of them as pioneers, to act against Boulogne, then in our possession; and, in this way, of rendering them useful to the state, before they were expelled from it. The edict then meditated was issued in 1561, yet they still remain in France and the other countries, as well as throughout the rest of Europe.

Munster's account has been quoted frequently. "Homines nigredine deformes excocti sole, immundi veste et usu rerum omnium fœdi, furtis in primis intenti, præsertim fœminæ ejus gentis nam viris ex furto fœminarum victus est."

Thus early, A. D. 1417, we may observe characteristics which are still preserved. The men indulged in sloth, and subsisted chiefly by pilfering, which was generally more dexterously managed by the female part of the family, of whom the elder were then, as they have ever since remained, fortune-tellers. Thus early, too, they preserved a gradation of rank amidst their poverty,—"duces, comites, milites,"—and, speaking the languages of other nations with facility, they yet retained their own, which Munster says, the Germans called "Rotwelsh, hoc est rubrum barbarismum," and, without doubt, was their Eastern language, much less corrupted than at the present day.

It is impossible to find a greater similarity in the traits of character and in the manners exhibited by distant tribes of the same family, than that which is observable amongst the gypsies of different countries of Europe, under whatsoever appellation they may be known. The habits of the *Cygani*, the *Czygani* or *Tzygany* of Hungary, have frequently been the subject of observation in the present volume. No one who compares them with the description of the Spanish *Gitano*, given in the Appendix, can for a moment doubt the identity of the people; and still less can we draw a line of distinction between them and the Scotch "*Tinklers*," so well described by Mr

Smith in Hoyland's Survey. This writer represents a colony of about 109 individuals, dwelling from time immemorial in a row of miserable cottages on the outskirts of Kirk Yetholm; perfectly independent of the other inhabitants; occupying themselves as smiths, or in making horn-spoons, and shoe-mats, or besoms of broom and heath; stationary in winter, but in summer enjoying a vagrant life, and carrying trifling articles for sale from village to village; seldom seeking marriage alliances out of their own society; and constantly preserving a peculiarity of manner and of feature which affords a striking contrast with all around them. Assuredly no description could more exactly pourtray the condition of the street of the Cyganis at the entrance of Leva, or their settlement at Csurgo, than the account given of the Tinkler-row at Kirk Yetholm, and its inhabitants.

A recent traveller in Transylvania says, "The *Zigeuner* suburb of Kronstadt, which lies at a short distance from the town itself, consists of more than a hundred small wooden houses without yards, and not forming a regular street. The Zigeuners who live here employ themselves chiefly in smiths' work, in mending shoes, and in music." And another writer in the *Vaterländische Blätter* for 1811, who divides the whole gypsey population of Transylvania into two classes, the itinerant and the stationary, says of the former, "Without having any fixed habitation, they wander summer and winter from one place to another. In summer they generally live in tents; in winter in miserable huts of clay, or in holes which they excavate to the depth of a few feet in the declivity of the hills, and cover with branches, moss, and turf, to protect themselves from the weather. It is easy to imagine how miserable the inside of one of these habitations appears. Air and light are almost excluded; and the only apartment consists of a single cave, in the centre of which a fire burns, serving at the same

time to warm the house, and to cook their victuals. Household and cookery utensils are scarcely to be expected. They sit, eat, and sleep, on the bare ground, or at best lie upon a heap of rags. On a fine winter day they open their cavern for a few hours to the sun; but if the weather is cloudy, they keep themselves shut up, nestle round the fire, cook and divide the food which chance or theft has placed at their disposal, and pass the remainder of the day in chatting and smoking, for the latter of which they have a particular affection. Men, women, and even children, know no greater happiness than to smoke tobacco out of a short pipe, or to chew a piece of the wooden pipe, when it has been well imbued with the essential oil of the tobacco.

"Their furniture seldom consists of more than an earthen pot, an iron pan, a spoon, a water-jug, a knife, and sometimes a dish. If the father is a smith, which is most frequently the case, he has a pair of small hand-bellows, a stone anvil, a pair of pincers, and a couple of hammers. Add to this a knapsack, a few rags for clothing, a tattered tent, formed of a piece of coarse woollen, and this is a complete inventory. But if, besides these, he is so fortunate as to possess an old foundered horse, he puts the whole of his establishment upon its back, and thus rambles from place to place.

"The nomadic gypsey is generally clothed in rags, and the women are, if possible, still more remarkable than the men for want of cleanliness. Wrapt in their tattered garments, which scarcely suffice for decency, carrying their infants in a piece of cloth suspended from their shoulders, and dragging before them the elder children naked, or at most covered with a torn shirt, they visit, in all their filth, particularly during the fairs, the villages and towns, in order to dispose of the miserable produce of their labour, or rather under this pretence to profit by their skill in pilfering. Their

stations are generally by the road-side, where the naked children lie begging alms; or by following travellers, by tumbling, and by locking the wheels, collect a few kreutzers, or seize an opportunity of purloining something. Their usual occupation is the manufacture of coarse iron articles. Some cut spoons, and shovels and little troughs out of wood; others make besoms of twigs, weave baskets, and gather herbs, rushes, or juniper berries. They thus contrive to get a scanty subsistence; and, if any thing remains after providing what is absolutely necessary, it is expended in brandy, of which they are very fond.

"The settled Zigeuners, or *Neubauern*, that is, new peasants, a title given them by Maria Theresia, live in a much better condition than their nomadic brethren; they reside in the outskirts of suburbs and villages, where they herd together, and their habitations contain a greater variety of articles of comfort than the tents above described. Their occupations are generally those of the wandering tribes. The greater part are smiths; and, in spite of their imperfect apparatus, perform their work well. They visit also the neighbouring towns and villages to mend iron and copper utensils;—others busy themselves with music, and pass in companies from one place to another. Some of them are tolerable performers, and collect large contributions from parties who amuse themselves in dancing and other festivities; others employ themselves in mending shoes and in wood work, or assist in agricultural employments, in which, however, they are seldom industrious. They are usually employed as executioners, and in the business of flaying animals which have died a natural death. The women mostly trade in old clothes, in which the men assist them; or they profit from the superstition of the peasantry by fortune-telling, and a pretence to magic. Another occupation in which they are much engaged in Transylvania is

gold-washing, in the many rivulets of the country which yield this metal."

This account agrees pretty nearly with that given by Grellman, who, however, introduces a quadruple division, and says, "By a MSS. account from Transylvania, we are assured there are four sorts of gypsies in that country. 1*st*, City gypsies, who are the most civilized of all, and maintain themselves by music, smiths' work, selling old clothes, horse-dealing, &c. 2*d*, Gold-washers, who are a real source of profit to a state. 3*d*, Tent gypsies. 4*th*, The Egyptian gypsies. These are more filthy, and more addicted to stealing, than any of the foregoing." He then remarks, "There are no city gypsies in Hungary;" which observation is certainly contradicted by the existence of the families at Sagh, who answer exactly to his description of the city gypsey.

The nomadic class is now become very rare, if not extinct, in Hungary. Such, however, I have encountered in Bohemia. With a light waggon and a horse they convey their tents, household furniture, and families, from place to place, fixing their habitations for the night wherever chance presents them with a suitable situation.

The Zingari of Italy, as described by Swinburne, are no other than the common gypsies;—Dr Clarke found them in Moscow and in the Crimea;—for their appearance in Walachia, Slavonia, Bessarabia, Tartary, Bulgaria, Greece, and Romania, we have the authority of Grellman; and travellers agree in speaking of them at Cairo and Constantinople. Aaron Hill, in his account of the Ottoman empire, relates an amusing story of a man belonging to a large tribe of these people, who had pitched their tents near a country town in Turkey. A friend of his purchased from a gypsey a beautiful hatchet, and caught him the next day in the act of stealing it away again.

The gypsey, far from betraying any contrition, resolutely maintained that he had foreseen the gentleman would cut himself, and was determined to prevent the misfortune, and then contriving to elude the grasp of his pursuer, ran to a distance, and threw the hatchet into a deep well, still glorying in the service he had conferred by his theft. A more characteristic story, or one more plainly shewing the gypsey, both in his bodily and mental qualities, could scarcely have been related. These people appear likewise in Sweden and in Denmark; and in Poland they abound. In France they are familiarly known by the name of Bohemiens; and the tale which is told in the spirited etchings of Callot, leaves us no room to doubt the character which they bore in his time. In England, the greater part of the gypsies are stationary in the larger towns during the winter. A large number inhabit the poorer districts of London in particular, pursuing all the occupations which have been already detailed; and, long before the hedges are covered with leaves, they set forward with their tents to visit their summer haunts. The majority confine themselves to a particular district, seldom extending their wanderings beyond certain counties; and meet together in great numbers, at most of the summer fairs in the neighbourhood of London. For my own part, I have not been able to discover all those marks of natural and inherent depravity in the gypsey character which have been so obvious to others; and I am inclined to think, that by far the most depraved members of their little community are such as, having married gypsey women, become its adopted, and not its natural associates,—of which many instances have come within my knowledge; and I am confident that we are apt to appreciate, much too lightly, the actual happiness enjoyed by this class of people, who, beneath their ragged tents, in the pure air of the heath, may well excite the envy of the

majority of the poor, though better provided with domestic accommodation, in the unwholesome haunts of the town. I must not, however, enter more widely into this subject.—On the present state of the gypsies in our own island, M. Hoyland has collected much information. For an account of their condition and habits in the early part of the seventeenth century, I must refer my reader to a chapter in "Decker's Bellman's Cry;" and to those who wish to read a narrative of Gypsey life divested of all colouring, I would recommend a perusal of the celebrated trial of Elizabeth Canning,—a singular case, in which we are introduced to the history of a gypsey family during its progress from London into Somersetshire and Dorsetshire, from the month of July to that of February. The aged mother, supported and accompanied by her robust offspring, pursues an occupation of barter and traffic,—we suspect them of contraband trade,—we find them living in public-houses, joining with the country people in their dances, and treating their friend till their money is nearly exhausted. They pawn their merchandise to make up the deficiency, and mystically deal out fortunes to the peasants in order to retrieve their own. The barns and out-houses now become their habitations, till they are suddenly called home by a report, which reaches them at a distant point, that a member of their family lies dangerously ill. They presently become the objects of unjust suspicion, and are on the point of suffering as the victims of perjured evidence. What renders this history more valuable, is the great difficulty which, in general, opposes itself to the gaining a correct insight into their manners. No sooner does a stranger approach their fire on the heath, than a certain reserve spreads itself through the little family. The women talk to him in mystic language,—they endeavour to amuse

him with secrets of futurity,—they suspect him to be a spy upon their actions,—and he generally departs as little acquainted with their true character as he came. Let this, however, wear away; let him gain their confidence, and he will then find them conversible, amusing, sensible, and shrewd; civil, but without servility; proud of their independence; and able to assign reasons for preferring their present condition to any other in civilized society. He will see them strongly attached to each other, and free from many cares which too frequently render the married state a source of discontent. At the approach of night, they draw around their humble but often abundant board, and then, retiring to their tent, leave a faithful dog to guard its entrance. With the first rays of morning, they again meet the day, pursue their various occupations; or, rolling up their tent, and packing all their property on an ass, set forwards to seek the delights of some fresh heath, or the protection of some shaded copse. I leave it to those who have been accustomed to visit the habitations of the poor in the metropolis, in great cities, in country towns, or in any but those Arcadian cottages which exist only in the fancy of the poet, to draw a comparison between the activity, the free condition, and the pure air enjoyed by the gypsey, and the idleness, the debauchery, and the filth in which a large part of the poorer classes are enveloped.

The identity of this people in the different countries of Europe is so obvious, from a comparison of their manners, that on this alone we might rest our conviction of their common origin. Their peculiar cast of countenance, their complexion, their gay and cheerful turn of mind, their bodily agility, are all distinctly marked, and specifically mentioned by different travellers who have met with them in distant regions.

But the great confirmation and completion of the argument lies in the similarity of their language. That a race of beings, in the lowest degree of civilization, who, for four centuries, have been wandering about in every part of Europe, acquiring the language of every country which they have frequented, and claiming no country of their own, should have lost their original language altogether, would not be a matter of astonishment. That they should have retained their peculiar language would have been little less than miraculous; if, therefore, we can trace but a few words, common to the whole race in every country, and which have no affinity to the language of any nation inhabited by them at present, we are led irresistibly to the conclusion, that they are derived from a common source. This fact has been established by former writers, and the result of my inquiries can only be considered as an additional evidence in its favour. Having collected a few words from the Cyganis, in the south of Hungary, I lost no time, on my return to England, in seeking out a family of gypsies at Norwood. I commenced my inquiries, without much expectation of success; but my doubts were immediately dispelled, and almost every word which I could recal, was at once recognised by the first gypsies I accosted. To find, crouched beneath a hedge at Norwood, a family who expressed their ideas in the same words as those with whom I had conversed but a few weeks before, in the most distant corner of Europe, and having no relation whatsoever to the languages of the countries in which they were respectively settled, gave rise to a singular train of feelings, and to a confirmed conviction in the fact, that they had been derived from one common stock. The specimens of the language which I have obtained from Spain, are not so satisfactory upon this point; yet the perfect accordance which will be

seen in a few cases, such as dog, bread, wine, an old man, water, child, the nostrils, the mouth, and some others, appear to me so convincing, that the circumstance scarcely admits of any other solution; and it must always be remembered, that the situation of the Gitano of Spain is infinitely more exposed to that intercourse with the people of the country, which must be instrumental in contaminating their language, as well as their character, than either the Gypsey of England, or the Hungarian Cygani.

Supposing the fact to be admitted, that all the gypsies in Europe, by whatever name they may be distinguished, are the descendants of one common stock, the most interesting and intricate part of the inquiry still remains, to discover from what part of the world these wanderers have originated. This inquiry has given rise to much hypothetical reasoning, but this is certainly not the place to state the different opinions which have been entertained.

Their countenance, complexion, and habits of life, have excited a very general belief that they have originated from an oriental climate; and amongst the various conjectures which have been hazarded, with attempts to establish them by proof, that of Grellman, who considers them as Hindus of the lowest cast, carries, as yet, the greatest weight of evidence in its favour. This hypothesis depends very much on a comparison of the gipsey and the Hindu languages; and, in a list of above 400 words which he has preserved, a similarity exists going far to prove a national connection. He likewise shews striking coincidences in the grammatical construction of the languages; and he adds to these proofs, drawn from language, many resemblances in peculiar manners and customs. To account for their sudden appearance, the same author proposes, as a probable cause of their

emigration from India, the cruel war of devastation carried on in 1408-9, by Timur-Beg; and thinks, that, as fugitives from their native land, they passed through the Persian desert, along the Gulf of Persia, through Arabia Petrea, over the Isthmus of Suez, into Egypt; and entering Europe from that country, they brought with them the name of Egyptians.

I have little to add in confirmation of what Grellman has advanced, and supported in a manner suited to carry strong conviction to the mind, so far, at least, as regards the *country* whence the gypsies have emigrated. I had an opportunity of putting the small vocabulary, which I have collected, into the hands of a gentleman, who, from several years residence at Bengal, had acquired an extensive knowledge of the language of that country, as spoken amongst the natives; and I found fully as strong a resemblance in the words, as commonly pronounced, as appears in the written vocabulary of Grellman.

The opinion that the gypsies came originally from India, seems to have been very early entertained, although it was again soon forgotten, or silently relinquished. Hieronymus Foroliviensis, in the nineteenth volume of Muratori, says, that, on the 7th day of August A. D. 1422, 200 of the Cingari came to his native town, and remained there two days, on their way to Rome, and that some of them said, that they came from India, "et ut audivi aliqui dicebant quod erant de Indiâ;" and the account which Munster gives of what he gathered from one of the Cingari in 1524, seems to prove that an impression existed amongst them of their having come from that country.

There is something very curious in the accounts which we procure from India itself, where they likewise have their wandering tribes, answering very much to the description of the gypsies. On this occasion, I am happy to avail myself of the labours of the

Abbé Dubois:—"In every country of the Peninsula, great numbers of foreign families are to be found, whose ancestors had been obliged to emigrate thither, in times of trouble or famine, from their native land, and to establish themselves amongst strangers. This species of emigration is very common in all the countries of India; but what is most remarkable is, *that, in a foreign land, these emigrants preserve, from generation to generation, their own language and national peculiarities.* Many instances might be pointed out of such foreign families, settled four or five hundred years in the district they now inhabit, without approximating in the least to the manners, fashions, or even to the language, of the nation where they have been for so many generations naturalized. They still preserve the remembrance of their origin, and keep up the ceremonies, the usages of the land where their ancestors were born, without ever receiving any tincture of the particular habits of the countries where they live."—*Preface*, xvii.

It seems to give the strongest countenance to the opinion which resolves the gypsies into an Indian tribe, that the wandering people, of whom Dubois speaks, are themselves Indians of other districts; and even within the reach of well authenticated records, fresh tribes have assumed this wandering habit. His chapter on the "Inferior Casts" is full of curious analogies. Gypsies are presented in every variety of form. The following extract exhibits the motives which induced shepherds to become vagrants, and their perseverance in maintaining a new course of life, rendered doubly interesting by the moral character of these wanderers.

"In the Mysore and Telinga country, there is another distinct cast of wanderers, more peaceable and innocent than any of the former. They are called *Pakanaty*, and speak the Telinga. They were originally natives of that country, and were

employed in agriculture. They belonged to the tribe of Goalaru, or shepherds. It is now *a hundred and fifty years* since they first took up their present vagrant and wandering life, to which they are grown so much accustomed, that it would be impossible to reclaim them to any fixed or sedentary habits. The cause of their detaching themselves originally from society, arose from severe treatment which the governor of the province where they lived was going to inflict upon some of their favourite chiefs. To avert this insult, and to be revenged against their rulers, they took the resolution of quitting their villages, and abandoning their agricultural labours, and they have never since entertained a thought of resuming their ancient course of life. They sojourn in the open fields, under small tents of bamboo, and wander from place to place as humour dictates. Some of their chiefs, with whom I have conversed, have informed me that they amount in all to *seven or eight thousand* individuals. Part wander in the Telinga country, and part in Kanara. They are divided into different tribes, the heads of which assemble from time to time to decide any disputes that may have arisen, and to watch over the general good order of the cast. *They are under an exceedingly good police, and though always roving in bands through the country, they maintain great respect for property, and no instance of pillage is ever heard of among them.*"—Page 470.

It is certainly from some tribe more like this, and not from the common and despised Pariah casts, that we should be inclined to seek the origin of a race of people, who, on their entrance into Europe, assumed, amidst all their indigence, an air of dignity little accordant with the thoroughly debased habits and feelings of the Pariah.

The Abbé Dubois, after describing several vagrant casts, offers some observations applicable to them generally.—" Each

cast of vagrants," he observes, " forms a little republic in itself, governed by its own laws and usages. They have but little to do with social duties, or even with authority. Wandering continually from place to place, they pay no tribute; and being scarcely possessed of any thing, they have no occasion for the protection of the Prince to enable them to live unmolested: Neither do they importune the magistrate for justice or favour. Each little community has chiefs of its own, elected or deposed by a majority of voices; and who, as long as their authority continues, are invested with power to enforce their rules, to inflict punishment and fines on those who violate them, and to terminate all disputes that arise.

" The whole of these wanderers in going from place to place, take with them not only their wicker tents and all their goods, which are indeed no great matter, but also the provisions necessary for their subsistence during several days, and the utensils requisite for preparing and cooking their food. When they have beasts of burden, they load them with part of their furniture; but when without that accommodation, they are sometimes in great straits. I have frequently seen poor creatures of this kind carrying on their heads and shoulders every thing they possessed in the world, with what was necessary for their present subsistence. The husband took the burden of the tent, the provisions, and some earthen vessels for boiling them, while the wife, with half her body left bare in order to spare a part of the garment to wrap the child that dangled at her back, carried on her head the little millstone which they use for grinding the corn that makes a part of their food, and held under one arm the pestle for pounding the rice, and the mortar under the other. Such is the touching spectacle I have often seen with feelings of tender sympathy and compassion; and such is the kind of existence that thousands of Hindus are

doomed to abide, and which they endure without a murmur, and without envying those who enjoy the real blessings of life. And never does it come into their thoughts to improve their condition by entering into the bosom of society, and engaging in some employment more reputable and easy."

After perusing such statements, we cannot avoid admitting the high probability, that one of these tribes, either in the natural course of its wanderings, or driven by some sudden impulse, at length entered Europe in the fifteenth century, and laid the foundation of that scattered family which still bears so many marks of an Eastern origin.

Munster, in his cosmography, has given us a rough figure, apparently intended to represent the first gypsies seen in Europe, and has placed upon their heads a turban; for which, it is to be presumed, he must have had some authority; and, in one of the earliest references which are to be found in the English language to this race of strangers, we hear them spoken of as bearing a peculiar, and we should believe, an Eastern head-dress. In Skelton's description of Elynoure Rumminge, the following passage occurs:—

Her kirtell Bristowe red,
With clothes upon her heade,
That they way a sowe of leade,
Wrythen in a wonder wise,
After the Sarazins gise,
With a whim wham
Knit with a trim tram
Upon her brayne panne,
Like an Egyptian
Capped about
When she goeth oute, &c.

Now, the only difficulty which presents itself in this passage, otherwise abundantly clear, is the doubt whether the heavy

head-dress, " wrythen in a wonder wise," and most evidently meaning a turban, refers only to the Sarazin's head, or likewise forms a part of the *Egyptian's* dress. I would not lay any stress upon this passage; but I am not sorry of the opportunity of introducing to the reader this early notice of the gypsey tribe, by an author of our own country, whose pretensions as a poet are often of high rank, in spite of much doggrel, now perhaps not very intelligible, but once the vehicle of powerful satire. Skelton died in 1529; and it has been said, that the first notice discovered of this people in England, is in a law passed in 1522, in which they are likewise designated Egyptians. The year in which "Elynou reRumminge" was written, if worth inquiry, might probably be ascertained by the allusions contained in the lines beginning, " There hath beene greate warre," &c. and which appear to point to about 1517, when we find, in Stowe's Chronicle, that a great disturbance took place in London between the citizens and the alien inhabitants. To later British poets the gypsies have often afforded a theme for beautiful descriptive painting; and scarcely an individual exists, who has fortunately had an opportunity of cultivating the good sympathies of his mind in the bosom of rural scenery, but owns the influence of recollections in which the Egyptian wanderer has a part.

More, in his tract, entitled " A Dyalogе of Syr Thomas More, knyght," mentions an " Egypcyan," in connection with his account of Richard Hunne's death, in the Lollards Tower, A. D. 1514. Sir Thomas relates the story in his own person, and as having been present. The king sent the lords to inquire into the facts. A man appeared who acknowledged that he had said, " that he knew one who could tell who killed Hunne." " Well," quoth the Lords, " at the last, yet with much work, we come to somewhat. But whereby think you that

he can tell?" "Nay, forsooth, my Lord," quoth he, "It is a woman. I would she were here with your Lordships now." "Well," quoth my Lord, "Woman or man is all one, she shall be had wheresoever she be." "By my faith, my Lord," quoth he, "An she were with you she would tell you wonders, by G—. I have wist her tell many marvellous things ere now." "Why," quoth the Lords, "What have ye heard her tell?" "Forsooth, my Lords," quoth he, "If a thing had been stolen, she would have told who had it; and, therefore, I think she could as well tell who killed Hunne, as who stole a horse." "Surely," said the Lords, "So think we all, I trow. But how could she tell it,—by the devil?" "Nay, by my troth, I trow," quoth he, "for I could never see her use any worse way than looking into one's hand." Therewith the Lords laughed, and asked "What is she?" "Forsooth, my Lords," quoth he, "An Egypcyan, and she was lodged here at Lambeth, but she is gone over sea now; howbeit I trow she be not in her own country yet, for they say it is a great way hence, and she went over little more than a moneth ago."—*(Book III. Chap. XV.)* In researches hitherto made, as to the arrival of gypsies in England, this passage has, I believe, escaped notice. It proves them to have been in full possession of the credulity of the vulgar, at least eight years before the act of Parliament to prohibit them was deemed necessary.

But to return to the Cyganis of Hungary, and to a consideration of the measures which have been adopted, in the hope of improving their condition,—a subject the more interesting, as I believe it is almost the only attempt of the kind which has been made.

The Empress Maria Theresia, about the year 1768, determined to do her utmost to civilize the gypsies, and render them

useful to the state. She issued compulsory decrees with a view of forcing them to abandon their peculiar mode of life, and conform to Hungarian habits. These decrees were ineffectual; and, in 1773, still stronger were issued, prohibiting them from marrying, if not sufficiently provided with the means of supporting a family; and, in two or three instances, ordinances were enforced, by which children were taken from their parents, that they might be educated by others. In general, however, these decrees were disregarded; and how little effect has been produced, may be judged from what we have already seen of the present state of these people.

I was certainly much disappointed, after the accounts I had heard, to find the gypsies in the south so little improved. The bond by which they are attached to the community is still so weak, that the slightest effort will disunite it. I have not been able to obtain any satisfactory accounts of greater progress being made towards reclaiming them in Transylvania; and, indeed, the belief amongst all the Hungarian proprietors is decided, that nothing effectual can be done for their improvement. It is therefore reasonable to infer, that no great success attended the attempts of the Emperor Joseph in that country. In Transylvania, they have, however, long exercised one occupation, which has more the appearance of regular labour, than their usual modes of life in Hungary. This is gold-washing, or the collection of the particles of gold found in the sand of the Transylvanian rivers. Even here, however, they pursue their calling with great irregularity.

With a view of giving some idea of the nature of the Emperor Joseph's attempts, I shall transcribe from Grellman the decree which he issued.

Religion.

They must, 1*st*, not only be taught the principles of the established religion themselves, but must send their children early to school.

2*dly*, Prevent as much as possible their children from running about naked in the house, the roads and streets, thereby giving offence and disgust to other people.

3*dly*, In their dwellings, not allow their children to sleep promiscuously by each other, without distinction of sex.

4*thly*, Diligently attend at church, particularly on Sundays and holidays, to give proof of their belief in Christianity.

5*thly*, Put themselves under the guidance of spiritual teachers, and conduct themselves conformably to the rules laid down by them.

Temporal Conduct.

They must, 1*st*, conform to the customs of the country in diet, dress, and language, consequently they must abstain from feeding on cattle which have died of distempers—lay aside their unseemly dresses, and discontinue the use of their own language.

2*dly*, Not wear large cloaks, which are chiefly useful to hide things which have been stolen.

3*dly*, No gypsey, unless he be a gold-washer, shall possess a horse.

4*thly*, Gold-washers must abstain from all kinds of bartering at annual fairs.

5*thly*, The magistrates of every place must be very attentive, that no gypsey waste his time in idleness, but at those seasons when they are destitute of employment, either on their own

account or for the landholders, must recommend them to some other person, with whom they shall be compelled to work for wages.

6*thly*, They are to be employed particularly in agriculture—therefore,

7*thly*, Every territorial lord who takes gypsies under his jurisdiction, must, if possible, allot them a certain piece of ground to cultivate.

8*thly*, Any gypsey remiss in his husbandry, shall be liable to corporal punishment.

9*thly*, They shall be permitted to amuse themselves with music and other things, only when there is no field-work to be done.

Such are the clauses of this decree, and certain it is that, in Hungary at least, not one of them has been effectually put in execution. It is impossible to say that all attempts must be useless, but there is something in the mind of the gypsey which will render a long series of exertions necessary to fit him for a place in the quiet circle of European life. Little has been effected in our own country, civilized as it is, towards reclaiming this singular tribe from their wandering propensity, either by the exertions of the magistrate, the enactment of vagrant laws, or the example of the country labourer's fire-side. The most encouraging examples certainly are to be found in the Cyganis of Sagh, and a few other places in Hungary, where they seem content to indulge their unsettled habits in occasional journies of traffic, and musical excursions through the country. It is possible, that by degrees many will fall into the same mode of life; and it is certain that, in a great majority of instances, they have now become attached to a particular situation, which is a first and very important step. As long as they continue vagrants, they will be content with little, and even

shun possessions which would render their migrations more difficult. When fixed, they begin to feel that they have a character to support; they stand in a certain relation to the peasants of the same village, and the social feelings gradually influence their actions. The more numerous they are in one place, the more independent of the stationary inhabitants they will consider themselves, and will be the less likely to conciliate their favour, or imitate their manners. It will unquestionably be an object of the first importance to separate them into as small parties as possible; but I should fear the adoption of stronger measures, which, unless carried to an unjustifiable extent, are not likely to produce much alteration amongst a race of people so impatient of restraint. In all attempts to change their habits, and to reduce their enjoyments to our own standard of happiness, we should carefully bear in mind, that the gypsies are a distinct and separate people, and that it is rather their misfortune than their fault to have wandered into a country where property is so strictly appropriated as in Europe. That they frequently sin against the good order of the countries in which they reside, I freely admit, and that they frequently suffer with justice the rigours of the law; but that the tide of prejudice, which ever flows against them, distresses and overwhelms many unjustly, I have no doubt, and far more criminality has been ascribed by superstition and credulity to these wanderers than they have in truth deserved. In illustration of this, we need go no farther than Grellman's Essay, who, under the article of diet, gravely cautions government to be upon the watch against the cannibal appetites of the gypsies, and applauds the wisdom of a Hungarian judicial sentence, by which 45 were hanged for indulging this marvellous propensity. Moreover, he informs us that they are particularly fond of young meat, and sagaciously observes, that

from their secluded mode of life, a hundred fathers may sacrifice their children to their horrible taste, and the crime as often remain concealed; for, as he afterwards observes, "How are the remains of the poor victims to be traced, if they devour what is eatable and burn the bones?" It is but justice to say, that Grellman himself, in a later part of his work, upon farther examination, gives up the idea of their being cannibals.

CHAPTER XII.

Badocsa.—Csokonya.—Graf Széchényi.—Peasantry.—German Settlements.—Walachians.—Their Language, History, and Manners.—Szigetvar.—Fünfkirchen.—Bishop Klimo.—Library.—Churches.—Market.—Manna.—Domestic Manners.—Processions and Pilgrimages.—Various Religions.—Clergy.—Revenue of the Church.

Early on the 1st of May, the Hofrichter furnished me with horses to the post town, Berzencze, where I found a tolerable inn, and a small church in which service was performing as I

passed. The road lay for two hours through a beautiful mixture of forest and field, and then passed a large extent of fallow land without hedges, and marked by the stumps of trees, as having at no distant period formed a part of the forest.

The inn at Badocsa and the yard were crowded with officers of the Lichtenstein hussars, on their route from the Banat into Italy, and I sat down with some of them who were dining in a small apartment, used sometimes for a bedroom and sometimes for a parlour, which opened into the yard. I never witnessed greater curiosity than was shewn by them to ascertain the object of my journey. That I should neither be a military man like themselves, nor a Jew merchant, and yet that I should be travelling in this country, appeared to them altogether incredible; and though for a time I felt an inclination to disappoint their curiosity, their good temper at length overcame my resolution. I found that my servant had been as eagerly attacked by their inquiries as myself, and every thing English, whether about my travelling apparatus or about myself, became successively the object of their scrutiny. In a short time the horses were ready, and this put a stop to an intercourse which had served on both sides to lessen the dulness of the day. I parted in the midst of a shower of good wishes for a prosperous journey.

The road from this place to Csokonya is much neglected, being out of the line of posts. The country is flat, and cultivated with wheat and rye, and although the day was delightful and, the sun very bright, the nightingale accompanied us with an uninterrupted song. In about an hour we reached Csokonya, a village on the estate of Graf Széchényi, with whom, however, I had no expectation of meeting. As I had a letter addressed to the Hofrichter, I drove to the inn, if it deserved the name, and sent a messenger to inform him of my arrival. In

a few minutes he returned, bearing a pressing invitation from the Graf himself to join his dinner party, which I gladly accepted, and found a large company, consisting entirely of gentlemen, assembled at table.

I was received with the utmost politeness, and all my comforts were instantly arranged in a bedchamber; so eager are the Hungarian nobles to seize an opportunity of exercising hospitality towards a stranger. I soon found that the cause of the unexpected pleasure of meeting any of the family upon the estate, was a division which was taking place in some of the most extensive possessions of the old Graf Széchényi, who had just given up great part of his landed property in favour of his three sons, and the young Grafs were now spending a few days on each estate, with the view of arranging the division of stock.

When dinner was concluded, we all adjourned to the farm. No sooner had we left the house, than I was again haunted by fettered criminals; and the Graf, observing my curiosity, took me to the prison, which opened into the yard. I need not describe another of these dungeons. The prisoners behaved with very unconstrained civility,—some bowed with their heads uncovered, others lighted our pipes, and none seemed much ashamed of the irons with which they were loaded. Two or three had, on the preceding day, made their escape. Whilst at work in some distant part under the guard of a Heiduck, they sprang upon him, bound him, freed themselves from their irons, and, leaving him in a ditch, ran off and concealed themselves in the forests, where they had not yet been discovered. In the course of the afternoon, I had an opportunity of seeing some remarkably fine men amongst the peasants, who evinced great strength and agility. They were from that class of Herdsmen, whom I have mentioned as

committing a great part of the depredations in this country. I was told, that one of them had been already two or three times in arrest, and, at this moment, there were fresh suspicions against him. The occupation in which they were this evening engaged, was one which called for all their strength, and a kind of savage force and exertion almost alarming. Amongst a large drove of several hundred swine, which had been wandering wild in the forests, and were now driven together, they were to select particular animals, to rush into the drove, and to seize and hold them till they were marked. In doing this, they were forced to throw themselves upon their object, and grapple with it upon the ground till they had secured their hold;—a species of gymnastic exercise, which afforded the company no small amusement.

Whilst we passed an hour or two in the farm-yard, the Graf had given directions that some of the peasant girls should dress themselves in their gayest clothes, and he now led me to their houses, under pretence of shewing me some of the country habitations. On entering one of the cottages, I found, to my surprise, young women, in this apparel, occupied in spinning and weaving, and not less than four looms in one single cottage. The girls were selected as the prettiest of the village, and their dress was remarkably light and gay, chiefly white, adorned with ribbons, and their hair neatly done up in tresses. The greater part of the materials were of home manufacture, but the sleeves of muslin.

The Graf afterwards led me to several cottages, allowing me to choose which I would enter; and it was gratifying to observe with what pleasure he pointed out their prosperity, shewing an interest in their welfare, which seemed to have raised them to much greater comfort than most of the peasantry I had hitherto observed. Few cottages were without a loom, filled

with a coarse manufacture fitted for common use. We went into several of their storerooms, and found none of them without a tolerable stock of provisions, generally two or three bags of corn, a cask of meal, a number of loaves, with a heap of yarn in balls, and in many good stocks of linen. On inquiring from a peasant, who appeared by no means one of the most affluent, we found that he was possessed of four oxen, three horses, six pigs, a cow, and three young cattle. In short, their condition was better than I expected to find in Hungarian peasantry, particularly after two bad years. This is perhaps one of the most favourable instances. It must be considered advantageous, that the peasants here have no vineyards, and it must be remembered, that the old Graf Széchényi is remarkable for the interest which he has taken in the peasantry on his estates. Long before I had any idea of having an opportunity of authenticating the fact, I was informed, in answer to inquiries upon the subject, that I might find the most prosperous peasantry upon the estates of Graf Széchényi, and it gives me great pleasure to relate in this place an anecdote recorded by J. Karl Unger, the intelligent author of letters on this country, who takes more delight in dwelling upon the agreeable exceptions which are found on those estates more particularly under the eye of the great landholders, than in dwelling on the abuses which they too frequently permit, through ignorance of their existence. On his arrival at Eperies, quite in the north of Hungary, he describes what he had seen between Zeben and that place. " After an early dinner, I met a peasant from Mihalan, near the door of the inn, taking his son, who had been home on the Thursday to fetch provisions for the week, back to the school at Eperies. I was glad to have found a guide,—paid my reckoning, and determined to accompany him. The gaiety of my

companion, and the ingenuous disposition of his son, afforded me much reason to rejoice at my determination. The boy was in his eleventh year, and already spoke Latin with tolerable correctness, while his father lamented that he himself knew so little of the language; he said he had learned the syntax at Zeben, but time had almost obliterated the little which he had acquired. He spoke warmly in praise of the *Piarists* from whom he had learned accounts, which he said had been too much neglected in his son's education, though in other respects he seemed well pleased with his progress. The man talked so sensibly, that I ventured to ask him whether he was contented with his situation as a peasant. "Why should I not be contented," he replied; "when a man does his duty, lives frugally, and has a humane lord, a peasant in this country may do very well. The noble Queen Maria Theresia," at this name he took off his hat, "has done us much good, and when the lord conducts himself exactly according to the *Urbarium*, the peasant's life in Hungary is very tolerable; but unfortunately we do not every where find a Graf Szirmay who treats his peasants like children, and the worst is, that the stewards often oppress the peasants more than the most unfeeling of the nobles." He then repeated a long catalogue of good and bad masters, who spread order or disorder around them; the former he accompanied with a blessing, and, as he uttered the names of the latter, crossed himself, declaring that he was most fortunate in being the vassal of Graf Szirmay. He ended his oration by observing, that the less powerful the lord, the worse was it with his dependants. I then asked him how it happened, that, being so well satisfied with his condition, he was not bringing up his son in the same. "Pardon me, Sir," he exclaimed, "you must give me credit for wishing to

see my son still better provided for; and as there is nothing in Hungary which prevents us from looking a little farther for our children, and I should myself be better pleased to sit at a desk than follow the plough, so I am determined he shall not blame me, for having hindered him from doing something better. God has given me the means"—here the hat came again from the head,—" and has given the boy a good understanding." In the midst of such conversation, we arrived at Eperies, almost without being aware of the distance we had walked. This little narration, *mutatis mutandis*, is peculiarly applicable to the estate of Csokonya.

The Graf, who wished to shew me every thing interesting, finding that I was curious about the state of the gypsies who are scattered throughout this country, offered to take me to a horde of Walachians, a people almost as singular as the gypsies, somewhat resembling them in their mode of life, and of whom a little horde had for many years been settled in one of the Graf's forests. As we passed along in his barouche, we saw extensive operations for reclaiming a large tract of marshy land by draining, and presently drove through a long village of German settlers, known by the general name of Swabians, though, in fact, they originated from various parts of Germany. This colony was introduced by the present proprietor. They are, for a certain number of years, exempted from much of the ordinary service; and afterwards pay for their land in the same manner as other peasants, instead of performing *Robot*. The great object of their culture is tobacco, of which they pay one-fourth to the landlord. It is generally said, that the cottages of the German colonists are much superior to those of the native Hungarians. In the present instance, I could not perceive the superiority, and certainly some of those which I had seen at Csokonya were better furnished, and supplied with more con-

veniences. In neatness of dress, though not in elegance, the Germans undoubtedly have the advantage. The keeper of the forest, who accompanied our party, said he could at once conduct us to the dwellings of the Walachians, as he had seen them the day before. Accordingly, when we came to the border of the forest, close to Barcs upon the Drave, he directed the driver to a particular spot, where, however, to his surprise, we found nothing but about twenty heaps of earth and a few rags. In fact, since the day before, they had demolished their huts, and erected others at the distance of some hundred yards, just without the forest. Changes of this kind are frequently made from motives of superstition, a settlement being immediately deserted when it has proved the scene of any misfortune,—such as the death of a companion, or the burning of one of their huts.

As soon as it was perceived by the colony that the Graf's carriage was approaching, the *Richter*, or ruler, dressed himself and came to meet us, followed by the whole horde. The dress of this Walachian chieftain was very handsome though simple, and consisted of a clean white shirt and trowsers, and a beautiful mantle of sheep's skin over his shoulders. This mantle was what is called a *musterpiece ;* that is, a proof of skill, which the pelissemaker, as is the case with all other workmen in their respective branches, is obliged to give before he is allowed to exercise his trade in Hungary. Pelisses of this kind are purchased by scarcely any one, except Gypsey or Walachian leaders, being far too much ornamented with flowers, and patches of variously coloured leather, to be in common use. The wool was turned inside ; the outside was covered with ornaments, and it had facings of fur, as well as the two-tailed cape of fine wool which hung over the back. The other persons advanced in age in this motley band were covered with rags ; but the

children, to the age of eight or ten, were entirely naked. Many wore necklaces of shells, among which I particularly observed one which was, I believe, a marine shell. Almost all were below the average stature of Europeans; the colour of the whole body a complete copper brown; and a peculiar form and expression of countenance perhaps more *Eastern* than that of any of the gypsies I had seen.

Their place of residence consisted of 18 or 20 huts, at different distances, placed in an irregular circle round the dwelling of their chief. Each of these huts was of an oval form, about 7 feet long, 4 feet high, and 4 feet wide. As some of them were not yet finished, we had an opportunity of examining their simple construction. They consist of thick branches of trees, inclined to each other to form an arch, their ends being driven into the ground, and turf laid along the bottom to keep them steady. Other branches are then interwoven between them, and mud and turf worked in amongst the whole. On one side is a little projection for the fire-place. The door-way is formed of two upright sticks, very rudely inserted into a cross bar. Each of these huts is inhabited by three, four, or five individuals, who sit on their haunches before the fire, and eat, drink, and sleep upon the bare ground. The whole number of the colony was, we were informed by the ruler, 16 men and an equal number of women, all married. The number of younger persons he could not immediately tell. Their chief and almost sole occupation, when not employed in carrying letters, or on other business of the same kind, by the lord of the estate, is the manufacture of wooden troughs, bowls and spoons, which they make with surprising rapidity, sitting on the ground and working with a small adze. Their mode of living is extremely miserable, and their chief sub-

sistence different kinds of meal. In spite, however, of all their privations, many live to an advanced age. A woman sat upon the ground in one of the huts, who was said to have passed her hundredth year, and there was a fine grey-headed old man of above ninety. The ruler, and several others, appeared also advanced in years. This tribe has inhabited, for a long period, the same forest. They are reputed timid, and much afraid of robbers, which makes them prefer living on the outskirts, rather than in the centre of the wood; and they always go in pairs when employed on errands. We were assured by the forester that they were themselves quite harmless and honest, and that he never had reason to suspect them of depredations or violence.

This is a horde of one of the most singular nations which inhabit Europe,—a nation ranking amongst the least civilized, yet calling itself by the title of *Rumuny*, and claiming the honour of being lineally descended from an ancient *Roman* stock. The great matter of astonishment, and a fact which gives a certain colour to this pretension, is the strong analogy which is traced between the *Walachian* language and the *Latin*, separated as the country now is from the western parts of Europe, by nations of Gothic and Slavonic origin. According to the statement of Sulzer, who, in his History of Dacia, has investigated this point with diligence, the language at present spoken in Walachia consists of four-eighths Latin, three-eighths Slavonian, and one-eighth Turkish, Gothic, and Greek; and, in confirmation of this, it is confidently asserted by authors, that Italian settlers in that country have acquired the language with facility. so as both to understand it, and to express themselves intelligibly to the natives.

D'Anville expresses his sentiments upon the subject in the following words :—" La langue qui distingue les Vlakes est un

dialecte corrumpu, de la langue Latine; et de là vient qu'on lit dans Chalcocondyle que la langue des Daces est semblable à la langue des Italiens. Mais pour ne point douter que ce dialecte ne soit sorti du Latin, il suffit de parcourir un extrait de termes et de phrases du langage Valake, que rapporte Lucius, qui dit tenir cet extrait d'un archevêque d'Achride, savant dans plusieurs langues; et il est à remarquer, que cette ville d'Achride, est voisine des Vlakes transplantés, étant frontière de la Macédoine et de l'Epire. On sait d'ailleurs, que les rois Bulgares en avoient fait leur capitale, avant que leur domination fût anéantie par l'empereur Basile le Bulgaroctone. En apportant, pour exemple, une de ces phrases familières aux Vlakes, *noi sentem de sangue Rumena*, je crois qu'on n'y trouvera pas une plus grande alteration de la phrase Latine, *nos sumus de sanguine Romano* qu'en l'exprimant dans quelqu' autre des idiomes également derivés du Latin, soit Italien soit Espagnol soit François."

The passage to which D'Anville refers affords so happy an illustration of the subject in question, that I shall make no apology for placing it before my readers. It is extracted from a treatise of Franciscus Lucius, entitled *De Regno Dalmatiæ et Croatiæ*, 1668, *p.* 285.

" Valachi hodierni quicunque lingua Valacha loquuntur seipsos non dicunt Vlahos aut Valachos sed Rumenos, et à Romanis ortos gloriantur, Romanaque lingua loqui profitentur; quod sicut sermo ipsorum comprobat, ita mores quoque eorundem Italis quam Slavis similiores convincunt, ut relati auctores referunt, et qui cum eisdem versati sunt testantur; ex quorum progenie se ortum Joannicus Rex Bulgariæ et Blachiæ, ad Innocentium III. scribens professus est. Joannes quoque Hunniades inter Valachos Transylvaniæ natus ex Corvina Romana familia ortum ducere gloriabatur. Pro dictorum verò corroboratione ponenda sunt aliqua verba Valachica quæ Roma-

num retinent idioma à fratre Francisco Soimirovich Bulgaro Archiepiscopo Achridano tradita, qui cum multo tempore inter Valachos versatus, regiones eorundem pluries pergraverit, et Bulgaricam Latinam Italicam Valachicam et Turcicam calleat linguas, de vocabulis moribus locorumque situ accurata distinctione disserit.

Valach.	*Latin.*	*Valach.*	*Latin.*
Albu	Album	Erba	Herba
Albul	Albus	Frat	Frater
Apa	Aqua	Fratria	Fraternitas
Argint	Argentum	Freul	Frenum
Auuru	Aurum	Fur	Fur
Arma	Arma	Furat	Furari
Ansul	Angelus	Gaina	Gallina
Ape	Apes	Gramatich	Discipulus
Buno	Bonus	Luna	Luna
Buna	Bona	Lung	Longus
Barba	Barba	Lume	Lumen
Barbosul	Barbatus	Luminare	Candela, lumen
Bou	Bovis	Luminosus	Splendidus, illustris
Batezat	Baptizatus	Maire	Major
Cadul	Caballus	Munte	Mons
Casa	Domus	Muntani	Montani
Camassa	Camisa	Nic	Nix
Caemp	Campus	Ninge	Ningit
Caemplung	Campus longus	Nigro	Niger
Campana	Campana	Ploua	Pluvia
Capul	Caput	Paste	Pascha
Caglia	Callis, via	Pament	Pavimentum, terra
Cagliator	Viator	Rossu	Rubeus
Caine	Canis	Rivol	Rivulus, flumen
Ciara	Cera	Rumaneste	Romane
Carta	Carta	Stella	Stella
Cielul	Cœlum	Soere	Sol
Cruce	Crux	Lun	Dies Lunæ
Domnul	Princeps, dominus	Marc	—— Martis
Domna	Domina	Miercur	—— Mercurii
Domnia	Dominium	Gioi	—— Jovis
Domneste	Dominicus	Vinere	—— Veneris
Domnata	Dominatio tua	Sambata	—— Sabati
Dutor	Debitor		

Valach.	*Latin.*
Nedeglia Slavonicum	Dies Dominicus
Bine venit domnata	Bene veniat dominatio tua
Bine amga zit predomne vestre	Bene inventa dominatio vestra
Su noi sentem Rumeni	Etiam nos sumus Romani
Noi sentem di sange Rumana	Nos sumus de sanguine Romano
Ne te teme	Ne timeas
Rumi tot suentia acolo	Romæ omnia sancta ibi
Pune solich in capul	Pone biretum in capite
Rumen Muntem	Romanus Montanus
Stis Romane	Scis Romane
Suffla	Suffla
Occide.	Occide

Historical evidence rather opposes than supports the idea of a Roman origin; yet the facts recorded of the language are too strong to be easily set aside; and even, should we adopt the opinion of some, that the language has the Slavonic for its basis, because its construction evinces much greater affinity to that language than to the Latin, we must still confess, that nothing can account for the large proportion of Latin words, amounting to one-half, except an influence derived from the language of the ancient Roman conquerors.

With regard to the historical account of this people, it is, as nearly as we can collect, the following. Little doubt can be entertained that Walachia, together with Transylvania and Moldavia, formed part of Dacia conquered by Trajan. He peopled these provinces with Roman subjects, more particularly from the Latin provinces. The Emperor Adrian had no wish to retain such distant conquests, yet, in compassion to the Roman families settled there, would not abandon them entirely to the hands of the barbarians, but nevertheless destroyed the bridge which Trajan had constructed over the Danube. The colonies thus became se-

parated very much from their parent country, and afterwards refused to acknowledge their allegiance to Commodus. Aurelian having abandoned a great part of Dacia, the Goths from Scandinavia, who had already extended themselves to Thrace, subdued it. They united themselves with several Scythian tribes, drove the Vandals from the country around the rivers Maros and Körös, and extended their empire under Hermanerich, through Sarmatia to the Baltic Sea. The Huns now made incursions upon the Goths, who sought protection from the Romans, and Valens in 376 permitted them to settle in Thrace. Some of the Goths, however, co-operated with Attila during his life, and, after his death took possession of that part of Dacia which nearly occupied the present situation of Walachia. These again, in 576, were overwhelmed by the Longobardi and Avari, Scythian tribes, under their King Albion. And when the Longobardi advanced upon Italy, the Avari, for the period of 230 years, occupied Pannonia, and were at length destroyed by Charlemagne. It was about the end of the ninth century that the Magyars, (or genuine Hungarians,) who are said to have been settled on the Don, driven by a powerful Scythian tribe called the Patzenaci, entered Hungary. Now it appears, that some of these Patzenaci, who settled on the borders of Macedonia, Thessaly, and Epirus, were called by the Byzantine historians *Vlachen:* from which is derived the present name Walachians. But how their language acquired its close affinity to the Latin, still remains an object of speculation; and whether, amidst all their incursions and revolutions, any of the ancient colonists continued to hold their original possessions, or whether driven forwards by one wave into Scythia, they were by another brought back into Dacia and Pannonia, will, perhaps, ever afford matter for historical research.

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When I state that this little horde, whose appearance approached so nearly to that of savages, formed part of the Walachian people, I must not be understood as wishing to represent the whole nation under a similar form. The truth is, that, though I was at the time assured that vast numbers were to be found amidst the Transylvanian mountains, still more uncultivated in their manners, I have not, in the authors to whom I have referred, met with any description that tends to confirm this report; and certain it is, that, while different writers concur in representing the Walachian, generally, as a most unpolished and savage nation, they all speak of the great mass as regular inhabitants of towns and villages, and mention some who have attained rank amongst the nobles of Transylvania. "The Walachians," says a German author, writing in 1811, "are spread throughout the whole of Transylvania. The greatest number of them, however, is to be found in the Hungarian counties. These may be divided into three classes. To some of them, all the rights of nobility have been granted by different kings and princes of the country. They are ranked with the noble Hungarian landholders, enjoying the same rights; and amongst them are found several families of importance. Others belong to the class of knights, who, on account of certain military services entrusted to them at different times, have obtained limited privileges of nobility; but by far the greater part of the Walachians are, like other peasants, bound to the service of the owner of the estate on which they live. Besides these, there are two Walachian frontier regiments, and a third part of the Sekler hussars is formed from this nation." The Walachians are considered amongst those people who are *tolerated* in Transylvania, and, according to the laws of that country, cannot possess the rights of free citizens; but the free families are

reckoned amongst the number of that established nation, whether Hungarian, German, or Seklers, in whose territory they reside. Their religion is the Greek Church, either united or not united; the former being in the proportion of about 1 to $4\frac{1}{2}$ of the latter.

The whole number of Walachians in the Austrian dominions is calculated at 1,600,000; of whom 900,000 inhabit Transylvania; 550,000 Hungary; 150,000 the Bukowina, which latter are, perhaps, more properly speaking, Moldavians, but in language and manners differ little from the genuine Walachians.

"The Walachian," says the writer to whom I lately referred, is "short in person, but of a strong compact muscular frame of body. The savage mode of life to which he is accustomed from his earliest infancy, enables him to bear hardships with fortitude. Heat and cold, hunger and thirst, make no impression upon him. His features are strong and expressive, his hair dark and bushy. On the whole, his countenance is not disagreeable, and you may often find amongst this people, both men and women, as well as girls, of great beauty. They arrive early at maturity, yet frequently live to an advanced age. At the age of seventeen and eighteen, the Walachian marries a wife who is seldom above thirteen; before he is thirty, he is a grandfather; so that the race multiplies rapidly, and the Walachians are already more numerous than all the other inhabitants of Transylvania, a disproportion which will probably grow every day more conspicuous. The Walachians are in respect to character sly, reserved, cunning, revengeful, and indolent. With the greatest appearance of innocence, they understand well how to profit by every opportunity of overreaching their neighbours. Of their cunning and revengeful dispositions, examples occur every day; and the history of Tran-

sylvania, as well as its laws, affords additional proofs. Indolence prevails amongst them, as in other uncivilized nations; it is, however, rather the failing of the men than of the women, who perform all the labour of the house, make clothes for the whole family, and frequently give their husbands much assistance in the labours of agriculture; whereas the men, after having discharged some of the most indispensable occupations of the field and of the vineyard, spend the remainder of their time in idleness. Their few wants are easily supplied, and, when this is done, they seek no more. The natural indolence of the Walachians receives much encouragement from the frequent holidays celebrated by the Greek Church, which they usually spend in prayer, drinking, and sloth. To work upon these days would be criminal. They are much devoted to drink, and the Walachian, in a few hours, will frequently consume in wine and brandy, all that he has gained by the labour of the week. If he is so fortunate as to find a pipe or violin in addition to a full pitcher, he seldom ceases from revelry until he is quite drunk, and is carried home senseless. It rarely happens that many Walachians are assembled under such circumstances without disputes and fighting, for they are very quarrelsome when drunk. The idleness of their disposition is naturally connected with an inclination to plunder; and if the Walachians are not such professed thieves as the gypsies, they never suffer a favourable opportunity to pass, and are particularly dexterous in cattle-stealing; so that many laws, passed in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, are directed against them by name, and, at the present time, the inhabitants of the countries where they reside, take strong precautions to prevent their depredations. When, from fear of punishment, or to avoid military service, they leave their homes, they often fly into the forests and mountains, where singly, or in bands,

they become the terror of the country. Perfectly acquainted with every hiding-place and every concealed path, they are ready to fall upon passing travellers, or to plunder lonely houses and villages, exercising the most inhuman cruelties; and, in spite of the greatest precautions on the part both of the civil and the military powers, it is frequently long before the depredators can be secured or driven from their haunts, more particularly as the inhabitants are prevented by the dread of a cruel revenge from giving resolute assistance.

The Walachians are in the highest degree superstitious, but make no scruple of employing shocking oaths on every trifling occasion. The stupidity and avarice of the greater part of the clergy, who, in the ignorance of the common people, find a rich source of profit, contribute to strengthen the failings and depravity of their flock. The ignorance and want of cultivation in the inferior Walachian clergy surpasses all belief; and there can be no doubt, that the first step towards improving the morals of the people, must be a reform in that order. The way to this improvement is already in some degree marked out by the wise regulations enacted in the year 1791; and the bishop of the united Greek Church has turned his attention to this important subject. The result of the labours of the institution for education established at Naszod, in the second Walachian frontier infantry regiment, plainly shews how capable the Walachians are of deriving the full benefits of instruction.

The habitations of the Walachians are small and confined; their towns are generally built of mud and timber, very seldom of stone. Still, however, in the Saxon *stuhls* are found some well built villages, inhabited by Walachians; but these have generally been laid out by their former Saxon inhabitants, as, for instance, Kleinjolden in the Reussmark *stuhl*. The Wala-

chian houses have seldom more than one room, besides which there is a small kitchen and an oven. The stable and other buildings which belong to a peasant's yard are universally ill constructed, low and dirty; they keep their grain in pits, and sometimes, particularly the maize, in baskets of wicker-work, suspended on a pole some feet above the ground, and protected by a cover of the same manufacture, thatched with straw. They employ themselves but little in gardening, and, with the exception of a few vegetables irregularly planted, nothing is found in their gardens but fruit trees, which are left to the care of nature. The internal arrangements of their houses are very simple. The furniture consists of the family bed, formed of straw, sacks, and coverlets, or, according to the wealth of the possessor, of feather-beds and bolsters, with covers ornamented with coloured stitch-work, which form a great object of luxury. Besides these, there are commonly a rustic table, benches arranged round the room, and one or two wooden chests adorned with rudely painted flowers, in which their clothes and other treasure are kept. Some pitchers, plates, and dishes, are arranged or hung against the wall, together with pictures of Greek saints, before which lamps of coloured glass are sometimes suspended. The windows are very small, and the light is usually admitted through a piece of bladder.

Although the economy of the Walachians is very simple, yet amongst the free families, and more particularly amongst those who devote themselves to the breeding of cattle, many are to be found possessed of considerable property. Of all rural employments they are most attached to the management of cattle; and in a great many of the villages and towns inhabited by other nations, the herdsmen are Walachians, who, settling either at the outskirts of the village, or in some

other place, increase rapidly; and in this way several Walachian villages have arisen. Thus the extensive village of Poplaka in the Hermanstadt *stuhl* has been established by the herdsmen of Grosau.

The indolence of the Walachians, which they can best indulge in breeding and tending cattle, is the reason for their preferring this to all other occupations; and the hardships with which this mode of obtaining a livelihood is accompanied, rather induce them to follow this career. All the changes of weather, and all the privations to which the wandering life of the herdsman is subject in distant and uninhabited countries which he is forced to explore in order to find good pasture for his cattle, are easily born by the Walachian, whose bodily frame has been hardened from his childhood; and the exemption from labour which he enjoys as he follows his flock, renders the difficulties he has to encounter still less irksome.

The Walachians direct their attention particularly to the breeding of sheep, of which a single individual frequently possesses above a thousand head. On the approach of winter they drive their sheep, partly on account of the mildness of the climate, and partly on account of the ease of obtaining support, and the want of sufficient pastures in Transylvania, into Walachia and Moldavia, where they suffer them to winter at a trifling expence, and in the spring conduct them home again. They usually sell the young rams, and the various kinds of cheese which they prepare in large quantities from the milk of the ewes, together with the wool. The old sheep, no longer serviceable for breeding, are then slaughtered. They likewise keep goats in large numbers, either mingled with their sheep or in separate flocks on the mountains covered with forests, and derive great profit from the skins; the

tallow, which is particularly valuable; and the cheese made from their milk. The other branches of cattle-breeding are not neglected by them, and they rear a considerable number of horses, horned cattle, swine, and fowls.

The cultivation of the field and the vineyard are occupations far less grateful to the Walachian, and he only resorts to this mode of gaining a livelihood when the climate, or other circumstances, renders it impossible to devote himself to the breeding of cattle. He chiefly cultivates maize, a principal article of diet, because from this species of grain a greater return from a small quantity of seed may be more reasonably expected than from any other crop. The cultivation of this grain was first attempted in Transylvania in 1611, and it has now become so general, that it forms a large part of the food of the cattle, as well as of the inhabitants themselves, and a year which is unfavourable to its growth, is always followed by a scarcity. The Walachians do not attend much to the culture of other kinds of grain, but they cultivate vineyards pretty generally when they occupy situations fitted for wine; still, however, the produce of their fields and vineyards seldom exceeds their immediate wants; while, on the other hand, Walachian cattle-breeders become possessed of property. They have but little inclination for handicraft occupations, and trades which are carried on in towns; they even procure the iron work they employ from the gypsies. The great cause of this is probably, that in former times they were not suffered to become members of any of the companies, a disability which was removed in 1802, and there is reason to hope much good will arise from this measure. Already, many are to be found who are occupied in the manufacture of articles of wood and pottery, amongst which, the makers of black earthen tobacco-pipe heads, at Borgo, in the second Walachian frontier regi-

ment, deserve particular mention. There are likewise a few Walachian families in the Tallmascher circle who employ themselves in tanning, but have arrived at no great skill in that business. Many of them enter into service in towns and villages, where they undertake the rough work, or are employed as day-labourers; there are also amongst them many carriers. The women spin, and make the greater part of their own clothing and that of their families. When we see a Walachian woman going to market with a basket of goods upon her head, and spinning with her distaff as she proceeds, we conceive a favourable idea of the diligence and industry of this people, which, however, on a nearer acquaintance, is soon lost, particularly as it respects the men.

Their mode of living is very simple; it chiefly consists of maize, from the meal of which they prepare a thick porrige, the Polenta of the Italians, called by them *mamaliga*. From the same meal they also make bread, or rather a kind of cake, which, while fresh, is very palatable, but soon grows hard, and scarcely fit to eat. Besides this, they use milk, cheese, fat, onions, garlic, fruit, green vegetables, and legumes, which they cook in the most simple manner. They eat little animal food, observing very strictly all the fasts appointed by the Greek Church, during which they abstain altogether from the flesh of animals. At these periods they prepare their food chiefly with water and salt alone. They drink much wine and brandy, which latter they distil both from grain and from plums in large quantities. The great consumption of grain for this purpose, has given rise to repeated laws forbidding its employment in distillery.

The clothing of the Walachians varies in many respects, according to the district; yet, commonly, it may be described as follows: The summer dress of the men consists of

a short coarse shirt with wide open sleeves, which reaches partly over the thighs, and hangs outside of the breeches. These are of coarse white cloth, very large, and descend to the ankles, and in summer are sometimes made of linen instead of woollen cloth. They wrap rags round their feet, and over them put a piece of raw leather, bound on with thongs, and thus secured to the foot and the leg above the ankle. This species of sandals, cut from the raw hide without any preparation, they call Opintschen. The more wealthy wear short boots reaching to the calf of the leg, instead of the Opintschen. Around the middle of the body the shirt is bound down by a leathern girdle, generally ornamented with brass buttons, in which they carry a knife, a flint and steel, and a tobacco-pipe; over the shirt is sometimes thrown a jacket of coarse brown woollen cloth. They wear their hair short, suffering it to hang down a little way in its natural curls. None but old men, or such as from their situation or office, as clergymen or *dorfrichters*, are particularly entitled to respect, suffer their beards to grow. Amongst the common people this usually takes place after the age of forty, and such men are distinguished by the appellation of *Moschule* or grandfather. The head is generally covered with a white cloth or woollen cap, or a round flat hat. While the Walachian is in mourning for a relation, he never covers his head, let the weather be what it may. They carry a knapsack containing provisions and necessaries, suspended by a strap from their shoulders; and a strong stick in the hand.

The women wear a long shirt, which reaches to the knees, ornamented at the breast and arms with coloured stitches. From a small girdle are suspended two aprons, one before and the other behind. These are somewhat shorter than the shirt, and are made of striped woollen cloth, bordered below with a

fringe; over the shirt the bosom is often covered with a stomacher of cloth or leather. They also wear, particularly in winter, under their shirts, long wide drawers, and in the mountain districts cover their feet with the opintschen, but in the plains they commonly wear boots. The girls have no covering on the head, but their hair is plaited in braids, which are disposed on the head in the form of a cross, and fastened with pins. Married women wear head-dresses of white linen, and the richer part of them of muslin. The Walachian women are very fond of ornament; they paint their cheeks red, and this, even amongst the poorest, is deemed essential to beauty. They often colour their eyebrows black, and wear ear-rings of different kinds; but the chief ornament amongst the rich consists of several necklaces of silver, or sometimes gold coins, (instead of which the poor use base coins and glass-beads,) strung upon threads, and suspended around the neck and breast. The number of them is indefinite, and they frequently reach quite to the girdle. The embroidery likewise upon their shirts and their many-coloured aprons, is esteemed by them a constituent part of ornamental attire. Children, during the summer, wear only a long shirt reaching to the ankles, and there is no distinction of dress between the boys and girls. In the winter they are seldom better clothed, and are seen playing and leaping about in their shirts in the midst of the snow. When they have reached their sixth or seventh year, they dress like men and women.

In winter the Walachian provides himself with a sheep-skin cloak with the wool turned inwards, and furnished with a cape of fur instead of a hood, or he throws over him a white or brown cloth mantle, which reaches to the knees, and has a large hood, which is put over the head in bad weather: under the cloak he wears his usual dress. The women in the same way

wear cloaks of sheep-skin reaching to the knees, and made with arms; the inside lined with wool, the outside adorned with coloured patches and coarse embroidery, and in the front brought together with laces and buttons."

Those who feel desirous of comparing the present appearance of this people with the descriptions of former travellers, will find some curious observations in the account given by John Newberrie, in 1582, (*See Purchas, Vol. II. p.* 1421,) where reference is twice made to some Indian peculiarities in their dress and ornaments. William de Rubruquis likewise, who visited Tartary in 1253, and travelled eastward from the Wolga for forty-six days, almost every day as far as from Paris to Orleans, observes, that "through all that region, and beyond also, did the *Changlæ* inhabit, who were by parentage *descended from the Romans.*" How far south these people, who were perfectly distinct from the Tartars, extended, he does not say, and probably had no means of judging, but they were thinly scattered, and another nation bounded them at no great distance to the north. I shall not, however, enter farther into the subject, which seems to open a new and an enlarged field for conjecture, but simply refer to the account given by William de Rubruquis, which will be found in the first volume of *Hackluit's Voyages.*

I have now been enabled to lay before my reader a very full description of the present state and appearance of the Walachian nation in Transylvania; and, as I have no reason to doubt that the horde settled in the forest upon the banks of the Drave forms a part of the same people, we must consider it as one of those wandering tribes which we are assured from time to time still enter Transylvania, and, passing through the country, gradually unite themselves with the other Walachians, who have already become residents in towns and villages. In all

probability this horde, having wandered beyond the settlements of their countrymen, and being perfectly insulated in a foreign land, have retained and will retain more peculiarities than are usually found in the Walachians of Transylvania; and until time shall have thinned their numbers, or some decided measure is taken to incorporate them with the surrounding villages, it appears likely that they will remain a perfectly distinct and separate race. Although infinitely less civilized than their brethren in Transylvania, there are several points in which they agree well with the description I have cited; and I shall take my leave of the subject after quoting one passage more from the same writer, which serves to explain the manner in which we may conceive this family to have penetrated into Hungary.

The author assumes the hypothesis that this nation is of Slavonian origin, supposing that the Latin has been the ingrafted, rather than the original, tongue; and then goes on to remark, "that, although the Walachians are the offspring of the ancient Dacians and Getæ, who inhabited Dacia before its subjection to the Romans, yet those who are found in Transylvania are far from being all the descendants of those Dacians who were left in that principality. The greater part have sprung from Walachians, who have, on different occasions, either as families or as hordes, entered the country; and this is obvious by the varieties which occur in their language in different districts. In some places the wandering Walachians obtained permission to form settlements; but only conditionally, until the former inhabitants of the place should so increase as to render the lands cultivated by the Walachians necessary for their subsistence, when it was required that the new settlers should withdraw. But frequently the Walachians have fixed themselves without any permission, in the place they

have selected. King Mathias caused the inhabitants of Ujfalu, which was a settlement of this kind, to be destroyed, as appears from an original document of the year 1487. All the unprivileged settlers did not, however, suffer a similar fate; but in many places obtained a firm footing, and it is expressly stated in one of the royal edicts, that in many places they live almost by open force among the other inhabitants, on the same soil and territory. A great number entered Transylvania, as appears from Bethlen's history of that country, during the time of the Woywode Michael, at which period they particularly distributed themselves in the Saxon villages. Several laws, likewise, have been enacted to oblige foreign vagrant Walachians to become subject to the usual feudal services due from the peasantry to the lord of the territory; and even to the present day, families frequently wander from Moldavia and Walachia, and settle in Transylvania."

As the evening began to close, we were obliged to shorten our stay with the Walachian tribe, and returned by a different road to Csokonya. This gave us an opportunity of passing through a considerable village of Croats, so that, in the course of one afternoon, we visted the dwellings of four distinct nations, each expressing their ideas in their native tongue. On arriving at Csokonya, some of the party sat down to amuse themselves with cards, while others, in good humoured conversation, passed the evening most agreeably. In the morning I left Csokonya with a peasant's horses which the Graf had provided for me. The road was dreadful, for in the whole Schümegher comitatus there is no stone, and the roads are either turf, or are formed by laying trunks of trees across the way; and as these decay irregularly, it soon becomes really painful to travel. We passed some companies of foot soldiers on their march, and arrived without misfortune at Ist-

vándi, a post village, the property of Prince Esterhazy, where we got fresh horses. The wooden road was so bad, as to be almost impassable. However, in two hours we got over it, and I congratulated myself on seeing a road of stones ; but, to my great disappointment, this was still worse, for not a stone had been employed in making it which weighed less than twenty pounds, and the holes and ruts threatened destruction to the carriage at every motion of the wheel.

The country was flat. We met a long cavalcade of peasants' waggons loaded with corn going towards the armies ; saw some large droves of oxen in the pastures ; and in one plain, preparing for maize, I counted above 30 ploughs at work. The country is rather more enclosed here than it is generally in Hungary. We entered Szigetvár by a gateway. It is a small town, with two or three churches, and amongst the inhabitants many Protestants, whose ministers walk about in cassocs, with broad hats and a sash round the waist. They were pointed out to me as being an odd kind of clergy, who were allowed to marry. Close to the town are the remains of a fortress tolerably perfect. It is about 130 yards square, with a quadrangular turret at each corner, and a low building in the centre. Hence a flat pasture country is seen, and some of the Slavonian mountains in the distance. This fortress and the town of Szigetvár were of great importance in the Turkish wars ; and it was here that, in the year 1566, Graf Nicolas Zrinii immortalized his name in the heart and memory of every true Hungarian, by defending the place most perseveringly with a small band of 2500 men against an army of 164,000 Turks. In this contest many feats of incredible valour were achieved ; and even the women seemed to emulate the glory of Roman matrons, or rather to imitate the

example of the matrons of their own country, who but a few years before had shewn their devoted patriotism at the siege of Erlau. Szigetvár may likewise lay claim to other merits of a milder kind, and particularly as having been instrumental in the diffusion of Christian knowledge throughout Hungary; for it was here that, in 1541, a translation of the New Testament was printed at the expence of Thomas Nadaschdy.

From this town we continued to pass over a flat district, intersected by many growing hedges, but the divisions are large. The soil is good, and the cultivation imperfect. The people were busy in sowing maize, women following each plough for this purpose. They raise the ground at certain intervals with a hoe, and drop three or four seeds in the hole they have opened.

Sz. Lorencz, the next post, is on an extensive estate belonging to Prince Esterhazy, upon which the greater part of the peasantry are Calvinists. I still heard nothing but complaints of poverty. The peasants in this district had not enough of grain for seed, and their lords had already been obliged to supply them very largely. I was told they were improvident and lazy,—faults which we can comprehend in an individual as arising from himself; but when we hear them alleged against a large body of men, we must suppose the error to lie in some external causes, and to be connected with something faulty in their social or political state.

Immediately on leaving this village we came upon a flat extent, bounded to the north by a beautiful forest, and a rising hill. Here was a farm establishment belonging to the Prince, with rich meadows, and the finest rye I had seen. I here too found a flock of about a thousand ewes with their lambs, all ex-

cellent. The farm yard is provided with extensive barns, and large buildings for receiving and drying maize.

All the upper parts of the hills to the left are covered with forest, while the lower parts are rich with vineyards ; and on the slope are to be seen four populous villages, each marked by its church. We passed through one of these in which the houses were larger than is usual amongst the Hungarians, and this I was told was a German settlement, the peasants performing the ordinary robot for their landlord. The scenery remained nearly uniform, till we arrived at Fünfkirchen, a large town, situated upon the side of the ridge of hills, along whose base we had been travelling many miles. The name given to this part of the range is Metschek. In the morning, I found that my window overlooked an open space, on the opposite side of which were the remains of a Turkish mosque, with the minaret still perfect, from which the Imaums called the faithful to prayer. The herdsmen, with their large black dogs, were collecting the cattle of the town to drive them to pasture for the day ; and about 100 peasants, men and women, passed in procession, coming from some neighbouring villages to offer up their prayers at the different altars of the town, and call down a blessing on the succeeding harvest. This is a ceremony which always takes place in the beginning of May, principally, however, amongst the Germans, who are the chief inhabitants of the villages in this district, and are, in general, strenuous Catholics, whilst the Hungarians are here more frequently Protestants.

One mark in the dress of the Germans is almost distinctive ; the short breeches and stockings, a dress actually unknown to a genuine Hungarian, and viewed by him with much contemptuous feeling. Most of the men in this procession, which I afterwards joined, were Germans ; their jac-

Sketched by R.B.

Engraved by H.Holston

FÜNFKIRCHEN

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kets and breeches of white woollen, edged round with green or red. The women generally wore long blue cloth jackets and blue petticoats, a costume much less becoming, and more sombre than the light dresses of the Hungarians and Illyrians.—I followed the procession for some time along the road; but when I found that these pious pilgrims were on their way to a very favourite shrine, at the distance of nearly two posts from Fünfkirchen, I left them, and returned to make the circuit of the town. When viewed from the south, Fünfkirchen presents an imposing aspect. It is situated on the ascent of a limestone ridge; some of the houses are of considerable size, and as the churches are generally furnished with at least two steeples, and each of the monasteries with as many, the whole possesses an air of greater display than might be expected from a moderately well built town of less than 9000 inhabitants. Part of the ancient walls, built by Peter I., who died in 1040, still remain; and on the outside a number of low cottages cling to them for support. Fünfkirchen is of peculiar interest, as connected with the ecclesiastical history and the literature of Hungary. It was erected into a bishoprick so early as A. D. 1009 by King Stephan, since which it has been adorned by a succession of sixty-six bishops, many of whom have truly been ornaments to their high stations, assisting literature by their writings, and forwarding Christianity by their labours. In the year 1364, Louis I. founded an university at this place, which was at one period attended by above 2000 students, but after the battle of Mohacs, in 1526, was entirely destroyed, and Fünfkirchen was again unknown as a place of education until 1694, when the Jesuits founded a college, which grew into much repute. The number of literary men who have graced the history of these institutions is great; but in later years, the person who has deservedly at-

tracted the greatest share of praise, living still in the memory of many of the inhabitants, and claiming a place in the gratitude of all, is the Reverend Bishop George Klimo, whose history is full of interest, exhibiting a striking instance of the power of merit in elevating its possessor, under the most unfavourable circumstances. This great man was born in 1710, of humble Hungarian peasants at Lopassov, in the Neutraer comitatus. In their lowly station his parents found means to procure for him an education in the public schools, then highly esteemed, at Tyrnau, where he distinguished himself by unwearied diligence, and early obtained some small church preferment at Vágujhely. He afterwards became a secretary in the archbishoprick of Gran, and was subsequently appointed to a prebendary at Pressburg. Here he remained but a short time, having been raised to a similar office in the Chapter of Gran. Graf Emerich Esterhazy, at that time primate of Hungary, knew well how to appreciate his merit, and his preferment advanced with unusual rapidity. He obtained the united dignities of abbot and archdeacon, was honoured with a titular bishoprick, and, before he had completed his thirtieth year, was appointed one of the council of the Hungarian government. In the year 1747, Maria Theresia called him to Vienna to fill an important office in the Hungarian chancelry. During four years he discharged the duties of this new situation with distinguished honour, and in 1751 received, as the reward of his merits, the bishoprick of Fünfkirchen. In this important station, he conducted himself for 26 years, in a manner which secured him the heartfelt esteem of the whole diocese, and he filled, at the same time, with the greatest assiduity, the office of *Oberges-pann* in the two counties of Barany and Tolna, to which, in 1755, that of Veröcz was added. On an occasion of much difficulty, in a dispute between the Magistrates of the comita-

tus of Weszprim, he obtained great praise for the ability with which he discharged the difficult office of arbitrator; and was, at a later period of his life, again called by the Empress to assist in the council of the state. His care to promote the interest of the bishoprick, and to encourage learning, was unceasing: the noblest monument of his liberality, a public library, which he enriched with 20,000 volumes, and, at a large expence, caused many valuable manuscripts to be carefully copied, adding to all an extensive collection of ancient coins, and settling a considerable sum for the maintenance and increase of the library. Besides this, he caused churches and monasteries to be built, and liberally endowed many institutions for education. His laborious and useful life was closed in 1777. The encouragement which he gave to men of letters, collected in the diocese many individuals who have distinguished themselves in the paths of general literature, and of belles-lettres, as well as in the severer pursuits of theological inquiry. In the society of Mr Kölesy, to whom I was fortunate in having brought an introduction, I visited the library, and a better conductor I could not well have selected, as he had been recently employing his leisure hours in collating and publishing facts respecting the life of its founder. It contains a great many valuable works, but is rather deficient in modern literature; for the present bishop, though a man of very superior mind, does not interest himself much in its increase. The room is adorned with the portraits, and enriched with memorials of many bishops who have successively occupied the see since the reign of Stephan, each now sleeping with his fathers, and leaving no heirs to inherit his virtues, or cherish his remembrance.

The bishop's palace forms a grand feature amongst the public buildings, though the kitchen is the chief object of its inter-

nal economy which is shewn to the traveller. The whole town assumes a character somewhat monastic, which was still increased at this moment by the religious processions and ceremonies to which the season had given rise. There are seven considerable churches, besides the Dom-church or Cathedral of St Peter, and the remains of not fewer than twelve mosques, one of which is now converted into a very handsome church, formerly belonging to the Jesuits.

The Cathedral is a fine building; it has three large square towers, to which they were adding a fourth, besides giving a new facing to part of the body of the church, and otherwise enlarging and adorning it. Within it is so arranged, that the whole chancel and high altar are raised from the other part of the church, and approached by a handsome flight of steps; beneath which another chapel is constructed. The building contains, likewise, three other chapels of moderate size; so that it often happens that service is conducted within these walls, at the same time, in the Hungarian, the Illyrian, and the German languages, without any confusion. It is believed that this peculiarity in the Cathedral gave origin to the name of the town. In the course of our walk we went to the Franciscan church, where we found a procession, which had passed in the morning from the Dom-church, celebrating mass; and, in the adjoining gardens, a number of ladies had assembled, who, as they escaped one by one from their devotions, converted them into a gay promenade. We likewise visited a monastery of Barmherzigen Brüder, *(Fratres Misericordiæ,)* an order which has been, more than almost any other, protected from the reforming hand of government, on account of the pious and charitable objects which they profess. They have here an hospital for the poor, which contains about 24 patients. It was not wanting in neatness, but

the importance of ventilation seemed little understood, and the careful brethren were only anxious to conceal, by the fumes of incense, that which a little fresh air would have driven completely away.

On visiting the market we found a very pleasing mixture of national costume. As the day was fine, the women were chiefly dressed in light-coloured clothes,—the Hungarian and some of the Illyrian women with particular elegance; and the deep fringes of open work, with which their full sleeves, their short petticoats, and the handkerchiefs which covered their heads were bordered, gave a great richness to their appearance. I think it observable, not only in Hungary, but in a great many parts of Germany, that the female peasantry shew greater value for their personal appearance than is usually found in our own peasantry, except, indeed, in South Wales, where something of the same kind is seen. This is particularly the case as it regards their complexion. Scarcely a woman is to be met who has not a handkerchief rolled round her forehead, and then brought down the cheeks and over the chin, leaving nothing but the eyes and nose exposed to the heat of the sun. This was the universal costume in the market of Fünfkirchen; and my companion could generally anticipate the language in which a peasant would speak, from the peculiar disposition of the handkerchief about her head. In the market-place were exposed all the usual products of the country, chiefly brought in small quantities by the peasantry. At certain seasons, a very active trade in these articles is carried on at Fünfkirchen, which is considered the capital of this part of Hungary, and is noted more particularly for its tobacco, and the number of swine and cattle which are annually sold at its markets.

From the library window we afterwards saw the procession

return to the Dom-church. It consisted of a number of clergy and other inhabitants of the place, together with above 700 boys from two schools, the one military and the other civil, which are established in the town; the former being one of those schools which are attached to every regiment of the line in the Austrian service.

In the afternoon, we walked on the hill which rises behind the town, to enjoy the extensive prospect, and visit some remains of Turkish power, as well as the ruins of a summer palace of the bishop. We had likewise an opportunity, during this ramble, of examining a paper-mill, first established as an appendage to the bishoprick by the celebrated Klimo, and where much coarse writing-paper is manufactured. As we ascended the hill, we wandered amidst vineyards surrounded by luxuriant hedges of lilac in full blossom, and one or two species of the ash, likewise forming flowery hedges, amongst which the manna ash, *Fraxinus Ornus*, was observed.

It would be wrong, perhaps, to pass by this opportunity of mentioning an attempt which was made, during the years 1800, 1801, and 1802, to procure manna from the forests of Croatia and Hungary. The projector of this experiment was an Italian marquis, of the name of Brigido, who first commenced his operations in the Croatian comitatus of Agram; and afterwards, under the countenance of government, pursued the attempt in several royal forests in the Eisenburger and Schümegher comitatus. The manna which he obtained was of the finest quality; but it appears that he was not sufficiently cautious in his choice of the species of ash employed, making his incisions promiscuously in the *Fraxinus excelsior*, which is the more common species in Hungary, and the *Fraxinus ornus* and *rotundifolia*, which are more rare, and yield manna in larger quantities. He also had difficulties to encounter, from being obliged to

employ the common peasantry of the country, with whom he could not converse, and whose labour, being yielded as robot each for a few days, was not of a kind sufficiently steady to give him an opportunity of training his workmen to their new occupation. All these causes, together with some unfortunate weather, seem to have checked the progress of this promising experiment.

As the night approached, we returned toward the town, and spent the evening agreeably, in the family of my new but kind friend Mr Kölesy. And I may perhaps be allowed, without subjecting myself to any charge of indelicacy, to make this little establishment the groundwork of a sketch, which will embrace the economy of a large part of the private and unaspiring citizens of Hungary. Entering the abode from the yard, you first pass through the kitchen. This is a small room, fitted up with a raised stone hearth, and furnished with pots, tripods, and hooks, by which the various operations of the kitchen are conducted, over a heap of burning wood, in a much more effectual manner than would appear possible at first view. The dishes are, however, very seldom of that substantial character which marks the English cookery, and consist of soups, and small pieces of meat stewed with vegetables. Out of this room, you pass into the common apartment, which, during the day, serves as the sitting, and during the night as the sleeping-room. The floor is without carpet, and the walls are generally white washed. The furniture is frequently very good though plain, and two neat crib bedsteads, without curtains or bedside carpets, stand in the corners of the room, one for the master, the other for the mistress of the house. The lady places herself at a little table near the window, and is employed in needle-work. Her husband retires into a closet,

where he has either his desk or his library, as his inclinations lead or his circumstances render necessary. The maid-servants have a small room, which communicates with the kitchen, where they sleep, or very often a bed in the corner of the kitchen, which is turned up during the day, and at night unfolded, or perhaps spread upon the floor. The children sleep either with the mother, or the servants, or in one of the other corners of the large room. In such families, a stranger is never asked to partake of breakfast, which consists of nothing but a cup of coffee and a slice of bread, brought in upon a waiter; but at twelve o'clock, the usual dinner hour, they invite and receive him with a hearty welcome and quite without ceremony. The repast finishes with coffee; and at nine they give him nearly a repetition of the meal at twelve. But it is not in eating and drinking that these good people either desire, or are able to evince their hospitality to the stranger; it is in a constant readiness to forego their own convenience, in order to render him little services, and in an unexampled frankness in giving him all the information, and affording him all the assistance in their power.

The society of Fünfkirchen seemed to me of a very sombre cast. There is a little circle of noblesse, who associate together, chiefly in small evening parties. The sociability of the remainder resolves itself into a few evening calls, and sometimes a cup of tea,—wanting even the friendliness of our little country villages. Public gardens and walks, where refreshments may be had, the favourite resources of the inhabitants in every German village of tolerable size, have been tried here almost without success. Indeed, I was myself a witness, on the following evening, to an attempt of this kind. It was the first opening of a garden and baths, the water of which was artificially heated; the whole, very ill arranged, was still worse attended.

It could not rank higher than an English village ale-house, with its bowling-green or skittle-ground. The Bishop's library is always open to the inhabitants, but scarcely any of them frequent it.

The next morning, by six o'clock, the church bells were ringing, and people were collecting from all parts, both of the town and neighbouring country. The grassy slope below the great church presented a curious appearance, being fixed upon as a resting-place by a great number of peasants, who drew their provisions from their bags, and began to make a morning repast, forming very picturesque groupes. Others, having offered up their prayers at the church, were setting off in large parties upon pilgrimages, generally walking in procession, with a cross or banner in the front, and singing psalms as they went. If the projected pilgrimage were long, the men had a bag of provisions slung over their shoulders, while the women carried their burdens upon their heads. These devout journies are not by any means confined to the old, even children partake in them; and it is no uncommon thing for the party to be absent from their houses above a fortnight. I saw one very interesting procession of this kind enter the town in the afternoon: it consisted of about forty young peasant girls, who were returning from a shrine, each carrying a pitcher of holy water; they were all cheerful and neatly dressed, and the form of the vessels which they bore, of black earthen-ware, and moulded quite after an antique model, added much to the elegance and character of the party.

By eight o'clock, a very numerous procession of school-boys, clergy, and citizens, had collected, and passed towards the Dom-church. It was a mixture of the various people inhabiting this part of the Hungarian dominion, and it was not difficult to discriminate them. The Hungarians, even the ordinary

citizens, wore blue hussar dresses greatly ornamented, a jacket hung upon their shoulders, and their half boots were edged round with silver; the Germans generally muffled up in great coats; the Illyrians much less gaily ornamented than the Hungarians, and wearing their hair plaited into a large club lying on the back; and the women of the same nation with their heads uncovered, and their hair smoothed back, hanging in a long plait behind, and terminated by a bow of pink ribbon,—a bodice with arms, either green or yellow,—the petticoat of a different colour, the stockings blue, with red clocks, and shoes in the form of slippers with high heels. Some of the matrons had their heads covered with a red bonnet or cap. Before dinner, I went with my friend to a village about an hour's walk from the town, a German settlement, belonging to the Bishop, at which he has a small dairy farm. The peasants were all neatly dressed, as they had just returned from church. We entered into conversation with one, who invited us into his house, and permitted me to gratify my curiosity by examining every corner. He had a plentiful store of provision, and his wife was preparing for dinner, a kind of pottage of meal, milk and herbs, and a soup of vermicelli. We next got some refreshment of bread and dairy produce, at the house of the person who takes charge of the Bishop's dairy; and after we had eaten as much curd and milk as we wished, had each of us to pay about the value of one penny. Our host takes the whole charge of the cattle, and has for his reward all that he can collect, after paying about 30 lb. of a preparation of butter, called schmaltz, for each cow, and a hundred weight of cheese for the whole. He seems to make his employment answer, and lives comfortably. On returning to the town, I spent the afternoon pleasantly, and prepared to depart early on the following morning.

I shall here take the opportunity, which circumstances both of time and place seem to afford, of introducing a short digression on the subject of the religions which prevail in Hungary, employing, for this purpose, the best information to be obtained from late writers.

The progress of Christianity in Pannonia was interrupted by the incursions of the Magyars, in the ninth century. After some time, however, it revived; and the Catholic form was adopted, and confirmed by the marriage of King Stephan with Gisela, sister of King Henry the Holy, A. D. 1101. In the sixteenth century the reformation began to spread its influence; and, from that period till the year 1791, when the Emperor Joseph introduced his wide system of toleration, Hungary was the seat of constant dissensions. At present, there are few countries in which the Christian religion is to be seen in such a variety of forms. The Roman Catholic may, perhaps, be deemed the prevailing church; and to this is added a large body of Greek Catholics, who are termed united, as they acknowledge the Pope for their supreme head, though they still preserve many of their peculiar ceremonies. There are others of the Greek Church who have refused to become thus united, while the Calvinist and Lutheran persuasions are, in some parts, predominant. The number of male inhabitants belonging to each of these prevailing sects, exclusive of the military frontiers, and of the nobles and clergy, is said to be

Of Catholics, (Greek and Roman,)	2,323,918
Lutheran, - -	312,388
Calvinists, - -	501,245
Greek Church, (not united,)	558,069
	3,695,620

The greater part of the Calvinists are Hungarians, occupying chiefly the central part of the country, in a line from the east to the west. The Lutheran religion prevails much amongst the Slavonians along the banks of the Waag and in the surrounding districts. The non-united Greek Church has, of course, its chief supporters on the Transylvanian and Servian frontiers.

The possessions of the clergy and religious establishments in Hungary are still very large, though much reduced by the edicts of the Emperor Joseph. It was the object of that monarch to restrain, within moderate limits, the overgrowing wealth of the Catholics, particularly the unprofitable communities of the monasteries and convents, and, as far as could be effected, to establish an universal toleration towards other sects of religion. With these objects in view, he suppressed 134 monasteries, containing 1209 priests and 275 lay brethren; and, after this was done, 147 monasteries still remained. Some orders were entirely abolished; others were only reduced. In the former case, the monks were pensioned; and, in the latter, distributed amongst the other monasteries of the order to which they belonged. In this way 747 received pensions of 300 guldens each. Of the orders which were entirely abolished, three, the Benedictine, Præmonstratensian, and the Cistercian, have been re-established.

Some of the friars having died, and others received employments in schools, it was found, in 1806, that not more than 447 of those who received pensions survived, or remained chargeable. And as, between the year 1791 and that period, 2445 of the clergy and lay brethren of the remaining orders had died, the whole number of Catholic clergy, in 1806, amounted to about 9000, and with the students, might be computed at 10,000. Joseph likewise suppressed six convents, containing 152 nuns, and 39 lay sisters; five of these convents were of the order of St Clare, and contained 131 nuns, and 38

lay sisters, the yearly income of the order amounting to above L. 11,250 Sterling. Eleven convents only remain, containing 261 nuns, and 94 lay sisters.

The present establishment of the Roman Catholic Church is as follows:

The Archduke Carl Ambrosius, Archbishop of Gran, and Primate of all Hungary.
Archbishop of Calotsa.
———— of Erlau.
18 Roman Catholic Diocesan Bishops, (Transylvania included.)
16 Titular Bishops.
22 Abbots with revenues.
124 Titular Abbots.
41 High Provosts and Provosts with revenues.
70 High Provosts and Provosts without revenues.
207 Prebendaries, } divided into 23 chapters.
67 Honorary Canons, }
2782 Priests.
448 Local chaplains.
1928 Assistants.

The present establishment of the Greek United Catholics consists of three Bishops, who since 1790 have had a voice in the Diet.

The Munkatscher bishoprick with	835 charges
Grosswardein bishoprick with	80
Creutzer bishoprick with	26
	941
Students, - - -	62

With respect to the non-united Greek Church, the establishment in Hungary, Croatia, and the Borders, exclusive of Transylvania, was, in 1793,

1 Archbishop of Carlowitz.
7 Bishops.
935 Servian,
553 Walachian,
17 Modern Greek,
} in all, 1505 churches.
2101 Preachers.
26 Monasteries, in which are
233 Monks.

All these are under the metropolitan, the Archbishop of Carlowitz, an office necessarily held by a person of Servian birth, nominated by the bishops, though the appointment must be confirmed by the king. He has very considerable power in all matters relating to his own church; and holds a yearly court, composed of two Bishops, two Proto-presbyters, two Archimandrites, and two Priests, to hear appeals from the inferior courts, all of which may, however, be finally submitted to the judgment of the throne.

Of smaller sects, which are not specially acknowledged by the government, there are not many in Hungary itself. In Transylvania there are more; and amongst these it was calculated, some years ago, that not less than 32,000 professed the doctrine of Unitarianism.

The Lutheran church has the free choice of its own ministers; and many churches form together a contubernium, over which district a lay-inspector is chosen by themselves. From a union of many of these districts is formed a superintendence, of which the head, or superintendent, is chosen by the

different contubernia, to be confirmed by the king. Over the whole church there is likewise a lay general inspector, whose duty it is to superintend the regulation of their affairs. Before the edicts of toleration issued by Joseph, there were but 213 Lutheran churches in Hungary,—these have now increased to 457, and the number of ministers to 488. In more than one-half of these, the Slavonian language is in use; and in the rest service is performed in the different languages of the districts in which they are placed.

The Calvinistic clergy in Hungary amount to 1384, and they have under their charge 1351 churches. The affairs of the churches are regulated by elders, and the whole are divided into four superintendencies. The Hungarian language is used in all their churches except three. The whole body of clergy, of all denominations, including 50 Jewish Rabbis, amounts to 15,600, or about 1 to 563 laymen.

Respecting the income of the clergy, the following statement, extracted from Schwartner, gives much information. "The high Catholic and non-united Greek clergy are, most of them, well provided. Many are rich. The inferior clergy, on the other hand, and the Protestants, with very few exceptions, are either in very moderate circumstances, or are really poor. According to a calculation made about the year 1794, the clear annual income of the Latin Catholic bishops then amounted to 864,776 silver florins, - (about L. 96,000)

"That of the twenty-one chapters then existing to 530,668 florins, - - - (58,963)

"The three Greek united bishops, 24,123, - (2680)

"The two Greek chapters then existing 9150, (1016)

"All the bishops of the non-united church, 80,000, (8888)

"The revenue of each superintendent of the Protestant churches is not much more than the income of a moderate Catholic parish.

" In order to improve the condition of the Catholic clergy, a *Cassa parochorum generalis* was established in the reign of Charles VI., which, with the addition of the estates of the monasteries which have been abolished, yielded, in the year 1799, 800,000 guldens yearly. When the Benedictine, Præmonstratensian, and Cistercian monks were reinstated in their possessions, this fund lost one-fourth of its capital ; but this deficiency was made up by a recent regulation amongst the more wealthy bishopricks, by which every newly appointed bishop was forbidden to appropriate to himself more than 40,000 fl. annually from the income of his bishoprick, and the remainder was to be given over to the *cassa generalis.* From this fund the poor clergy receive additions to their salaries, and some salaries arise entirely from it; but, although a clergyman with 300 florins a-year, which is the sum appointed of late years, can truly have little for the purchase of books or the education of his children, yet there are not wanting some amongst the parish priests, particularly in the Zips towns, whose income is above 1000 ducats. The whole salaries of the Catholic priests and their assistants may probably amount to above 1,379,300 fl., and the average salary 300 fl.

" The salaries of the Lutheran clergy, in which the maximum of a minister's pay is fixed at 800 fl., amounts to about 250,000 fl., giving nearly an average of 500 florins. The Reformed church is not quite so well provided for ; but taking an average of 400 fl., we shall have the whole amount, 560,000 fl.

" The great impediment to the improvement and education of the united and non-united Greek Churches arises from their poverty, which scarcely allows them to be distinguished from the peasants in the villages where they live, and would be still more oppressive, if the government did not assist the people

of all religions on the royal estates, more particularly in the Banat and on the frontiers, in the maintenance of their clergy, sometimes by money and sometimes with lands; and if they did not derive assistance likewise from a fund, established in the diocese of Munkats since the year 1796, which annually yields 30,000 fl. The whole income of the clergy, in the three united Greek bishopricks, does not exceed 79,850 fl., independent of the fund just mentioned.

"The yearly income of the seminaries attached to bishopricks, for the education of Catholic clergy, amounts to 200,000 fl. The schools, under the order of Piarists, have received much assistance from the emperor; and, in addition to 70,000 fl., their former capital, a grant was made in 1804 of 32,000 fl. taken from other funds, and an estate yielding 40,000 fl. annually;— and farther, for the assistance of the mendicant friars, who had been forbidden to ask alms by the Emperor Joseph, the present emperor ordained, that the Terminin, Capuchin, and Franciscan friars might, in the months of September and October, gather alms of grain and wine. The income of the Greek non-united Church was, in the year 1790, calculated at 94,300 fl. or L. 10,477."

From the above statement, it is evident that the offices of the church are not, in general, sufficiently lucrative to render them objects of ambition to men of family or rank. The majority of the clergy are taken from the superior peasantry, or from the middle classes of free citizens; and the education which they receive is quite inadequate to give that polish to their minds or manners which can fit them for the higher dignities of the church. There are, indeed, some exceptions honourable both to the individual and to the country, as in the case of Bishop Klimo, and a few others who might be mentioned; but by far the greater number, after receiving ele-

mentary instruction at the school and theological seminary in some small town, at the utmost such as Fünfkirchen, are, after ordination, appointed to the care of a little Hungarian village church, where they are frequently too much on a level with the surrounding peasantry, and too much confined in their means, either to claim the full respect due to their situation, or to indulge the benevolent disposition of their hearts. A few from the higher classes of nobility become candidates for situations of respect and power, to which they ascend by a rapid promotion; so that, amongst the bishops and archbishops, we find, at different times, the names of almost all the great families of Hungary; and, amongst the inferior clergy, those who are placed above the pressure of want, have, in many cases, by the extent of their attainments, and their assiduous cultivation of literature, vindicated themselves from the imputation which must still rest upon a great part of their body.

CHAPTER XIII

*Peasantry.—Mohacs.—Szexard.—Wine.—Tolna.—Tobacco.—Saffron.—Földvár.—Plains of Hungary.—Extent.—Inhabitants and Open Lands of Austria.—Disease amongst Cattle.—Duke Albert.—Pesth.—Marton Varsar.—Peculiarities of Husbandry, and Condition of Peasantry.—Stuhlweissenburg.—Earthquakes.—Palota.—Bakony Forest.—Fungi.—Sümeg.—Körmond.—Frontiers of Hungary.—*Styria.*—Gratz.—Public Institutions.—Joannæum.—Manufactures and Commerce.—Iron.—Salt.—Agriculture.—Schottwien.*

The country, after leaving Fünfkirchen, is still open, but cultivated. At the distance of about half a mile from the town, we passed a grove intersected by walks, to which a

few of the inhabitants resort in the afternoons of summer. We observed a small forest to our right, and an extensive tract, overgrown with brushwood. The road was tolerable, but we had to pass over several steep hills before we arrived at Szederkény. This village belongs to the government, a circumstance generally favourable to the peasant, and particularly so in the present instance. It consists of 18 families, each of which has a session and one-fourth of land, forming the whole estate, so that the peasants are called upon for very little robot, and that consists in labour in public works,—as repairing the church, or carrying coals, which are found in the neighbourhood, to Mohacs. The occupiers pay, however, a trifling sum, about 2d. for each day of robot which is due. To counterbalance this advantage, they are much troubled in providing *forespanns*; for which purpose, each peasant is obliged to keep at least six horses; and above fifty were in requisition on the day we passed through.

As the peasant has here so little *robot* to perform, while his portion of land and his vineyards are extensive, his circumstances are usually good, his horses are in condition, and no complaints were made, though two bad years had occurred in succession. Almost the only revenue which the government draws from the village is the ninth and tenth parts of the produce, which are in all cases paid, the former to the lord of the soil, and the latter to the church. We find here a striking illustration of the unequal distribution of the peasantry on different estates, and of the effect which that circumstance, combined with the different systems adopted by the ruling lords, may produce on their condition. A small brook separates the property of the government from that of Graf Batthyani, which is conducted in the usual manner. The Graf's estate is extensive,—the population comparatively small; but the imperial property, of

which I have spoken, though of less extent, is much more fully peopled. The one set of peasantry live at their ease, the others are constantly called upon to labour. The most oppressive poverty weighs down the one, while the others enjoy affluence; and so marked is this distinction, that no peasant girl upon the imperial side of the brook will condescend to an alliance with her neighbour on the opposite bank. Under usual circumstances, had a populous village like this fallen into private hands, the peasants would have been summoned to some distant estate where labour was more wanted, or would have been compelled to pay heavily for their exemption.

As we ascended a rising ground beyond the village, we looked to the right upon a range of mountains, and then passed the modern white house of Graf Batthyani, about which a few trees are planted; it is surrounded by a wide extent under cultivation with various kinds of grain. The road was excellent, over a high country gradually sinking to the plain through which the Danube rolls. We could not, however, see the river. On the left was a large village, and in the front the town of Mohacs. The first appearance of this town is rendered remarkable, by two or three church steeples; upon a nearer view, it is found to consist for the greater part of miserable thatched houses. The whole town and wide possessions around belong to the church. The inhabitants are chiefly Hungarians and Germans. I here found the stork held in precisely the same reverence as in Holland, and as in that country, encouraged to build its nest upon the roofs of the houses, and the steeples of the churches. Insignificant as this town is in itself, its name is engraved in sad and lasting characters on the mind of the Hungarian patriot, as having been the scene of that great battle, fought in 1526, against the Turks, in which Louis II. perished in the flower of his age.

and in which the Hungarians lost 22,000 men, 7 bishops, 28 magnats, and 500 nobles.

Whilst I was sitting down to a dinner of fish, for, as it was Friday, and most of the inhabitants Catholics, I could find no other food, I received a summons from the *Stadt-richter*, requiring me immediately to appear before him in person, with my passport. I hastened to obey his commands, and though not much moved by the dignity of his appearance, was glad to hear him express himself satisfied, by informing me with a look of authority, that I was fortunate in being so well provided, or he should undoubtedly have sent me back to Fünfkirchen, in compliance with the directions he had received from government. I soon after left Mohacs, passing northwards along the banks of the Danube. It is here a very large river, with shores perfectly flat, wooded only by willows and alders. The other side of the road was, in general, bounded by gently rising vineyards. Szekesö, the next post, is a miserable village, inhabited by a mixture of Hungarians, Germans, and Rahzens. We now passed some high sheep pasture, and again descended on the plain, where the Danube is singularly divided by several islands, which appear almost to occupy the whole, leaving but very narrow winding passages between them. We entered Bátaszék by a long bridge, over a marshy piece of land. There was here formerly an abbey, of which some slight traces still remain. The town belongs to the Theresian Academy at Vienna, but with the exception of one or two houses, the residence of the nobleman who rents the estate and the parsonage, the whole is composed of dwellings little better than cottages. The inhabitants are chiefly Germans, who settled here after the final expulsion of the Turks. The red wine, which is obtained in this neighbourhood, is much esteemed, and a small fishery is carried on upon the

river, where a few sturgeons are annually taken. After leaving Bátaszék, the road stretches along a plain unbounded towards the east, whilst on the west a broken ridge of beautiful vineyards and fruit gardens limits the view. Vegetation is here exceedingly luxuriant.

The next post, Szexard, is a large market village, inhabited by Germans and Hungarians, and belonging, I believe, to the University of Pesth. It has a very tolerable inn, and a house for meetings of the comitatus, which stands on an elevation, and has the appearance of a palace. It is built upon the ruins of an abbey, formerly belonging to the Benedictines, and richly endowed by Bela I.; but it fell, after the Turkish war, into the hands of government. A most excellent dark-coloured red wine is the produce of the surrounding hills. We passed several of the vineyards; and, crossing a country varied by marshes, meadows, and coppices, arrived at Tolna, where, as the accommodations at the inn were tolerable, I determined to take up my quarters for the night. This is another estate belonging to the family of Graf Festetits, who have here a handsome low-built house, with the arms carved in stone over the entrance. The town, which is now little superior to the majority of the villages we had passed, was formerly of some importance; and, in 1518, King Louis summoned in it an assembly of the states. The inhabitants are chiefly Germans; and as a proof that their character for honesty stands higher than that of the Hungarians, I may mention that, on asking my host whether the carriage were quite safe, as it was in an open yard, he answered, with much confidence, "Oh yes, Sir, the people are all Germans here!"

The chief occupation of the inhabitants of Tolna is the culture of tobacco, generally considered the finest produced in Hungary, and more esteemed than the tobacco of Szegedin,

Arad, and Debretzin. The Austrian government, although it no longer retains a monopoly in this article, is the great purchaser, and has its largest magazines here, at Debretzin, and at Szegedin, from which the raw tobacco is forwarded to the imperial manufactory at Haimburg, where it is prepared in different ways to suit the markets of Austria and the surrounding countries. This luxury, which is now almost become a necessary to the Hungarian, was probably introduced into Transylvania in the year 1576. Still, however, in the year 1670, its use was strongly prohibited, and a penalty imposed upon those who smoked. In the same way, rigid laws were enacted against both the growing and the smoking of tobacco, in the years 1683, 1686, and 1689. This prohibition was, however, gradually relinquished; and in 1728 we find 408,604 pfunds of Hungarian tobacco in the royal warehouses; and in 1779 100,759 pfunds of snuff; and 3,273,136 pfunds of tobacco were exported from Triest; and in 1780 24,905 centners of tobacco were exported from Fiume and Bucari. In 1802 the quantity purchased by government amounted to 170,338 cent. of which 490 were of Turkish growth, leaving

Of Hungarian - -	169,848
Private dealers exported - -	17,000
The inhabitants probably consume in smoking - -	60,000 cwt.
And take as snuff - - -	8,125
Total produced in Hungary, - -	254,973

Such is the calculation made by Schwartner; and it does not appear extravagant, when we remember that almost the whole male population are constantly consuming this article. Another product of the vegetable kingdom, to which

some attention has been paid in this comitatus, is saffron, which is likewise grown in the comitatus of Bihar, Neutra, and Trenchin, but still by no means in sufficient quantity to meet the consumption, although there appears no reason, arising either from the climate or the soil, why the saffron of Hungary should not equal the celebrated Austrian saffron, which grows chiefly about Ulm, Kirchberg, Wagram, Herzogenburg, and Ravelsback.

In the morning we pursued our journey over a hard sandy turf. The country was sometimes pasture, sometimes slightly ploughed. Tobacco was just planted in many patches. There were no hedges. It was a perfect flat, and I here observed, as I frequently did in the plains of Hungary, a number of the earless marmots running to take refuge in their burrows as we approached them. Half an hour before reaching Paks, we passed a desert of drifted sand, and, coming again upon the turf, found some large droves of miserable cattle and buffaloes. We passed a village of newly built mud houses, about which the fences were formed of reeds, and then arrived at Paks, a small market town. Many of the inhabitants are Jews; and, as it was Saturday, most of the houses and shops were closed, and the street was full of inhabitants, who walked about in cocked hats and long black coats bound round the waist with a girdle. The Jewish women are particularly fond of red shawls, and other gaily coloured clothes.

The road now ascends, and is cut between high banks of indurated sand, which are excavated and formed into cellars. Vineyards rose on every side, and the hedges which separate them were beautifully ornamented with the blossoms of the lilac and the barberry. The country presently became more open, and, as far as the eye could reach, no human habitation appeared. The uninterrupted extent of corn land was greater than I had

yet seen. It was broken by neither hedge, nor ditch, nor tree. No marks of division were needed, for it was the undivided property of Graf Batthyani.

As we came in sight of Földvár, we first observed a few trees. A large village lay to the left, and the opposite side of the Danube was a little elevated. On entering the yard of the inn at Földvár, I again found myself surrounded by prisoners in their irons, and with them some Gypsies were at work, taking off the roof of a house, all under the guard and inspection of a Heiduck. This town belongs to the government.

The whole of the next post can be compared to nothing more correctly than the downs of Wiltshire. Large flocks of sheep and droves of oxen were here feeding, attended by herdsmen, who, though the sun was excessively hot, lay on the ground enveloped in their thick woollen cloaks, while the asses, on which they followed their flocks, grazed by their side. I have before had occasion, on approaching Pesth from the north, to speak of the extensive plains of Hungary, on which we may now be considered as having entered a second time. What we then saw was part of the more sandy districts, but this is a flat open pasture, and affords a fair picture of the plains which extend eastward from the river Theiss. A considerable part of this plain, where it is free from drifting sands, is capable of excellent cultivation, being, in fact, a continuation of the rich soil of the Banat; but the extent of undivided possessions, and the consequent deficiency in population, the difficulty in finding a market, the want of good roads and water conveyance, together with the strong influence of habit, all conspire to prevent the Hungarians from converting these extensive commons into verdant meadows and luxuriant corn fields. Nor must we consider the Hungarians peculiar in this respect; every part of Austria, and of the

dependent countries, evinces the same neglect, and affords room for the exertions which are partially making; and whether the following statement of Rohrer be quite correct or not, of which I am not sufficiently able to judge, it at least shews, that uninclosed and uncultivated lands are general throughout all the Austrian territories. This observant and inquiring writer states, in the year 1808, their probable extent:

In the Hungarian, Slavonian, and Croatian provinces,	5,436,000 Joch, or	543·60 Austrian Square Miles.
In the Hungarian frontiers,	192,712,	19·27
In the Slavonian frontiers, and the Pontoneer district,	164,497,	16·45
In the Croatian frontiers,	339,522,	33·95
In East Galicia, without the Bukowina,	1,294,128,	129·41
Silesia,	89,477,	8·94
Moravia,	353,707,	35·37
Bohemia,	609,743,	60·97
Upper Austria,	71,657,	7·16
Lower Austria,	267,003,	26·70
Styria,	588,369,	58·83
Carinthia,	351,319,	35·13
Görz,	301,822,	30·18

So far has been ascertained by the measurements and calculations instituted by government; but the remaining countries admit only of conjectural estimates, which Rohrer has supplied as follows:

Transylvania and the frontiers,	900,000 Joch, or	90· Austrian Square Miles.
West Galicia,	600,000,	60·
Bukowina,	190,000,	19.

Which sums being added to the former, give 11,74·9 Austrian square miles; of which, even to the present day,

the greater part continues in the state of uncultivated common. But, in order to afford the means of comparing this estimate of the almost unproductive open lands, with the whole extent of territory in which they occur, I shall here introduce a statement of Blumenbach, another most valuable statistical authority, which not only conveys to us the extent of the different countries forming this great empire, but shews at one view their respective populations:

Extent and Population of the Provinces of the Austrian Empire and its Dependencies, according to their present condition, (A. D. 1816.)

I.—The Austrian Empire.

	Square Miles.		Inhabitants.
1. The kingdom of Bohemia,	956·80	=	3,203,222
2. The margravate of Moravia,	417·64	=	1,680,935
3. The dukedom of Silesia,	86·85		
4. Austria under the Enns,	363 65	=	1,048,824
5. Austria over the Enns, 151·86 square miles, 417,625 inhabitants, together with the circles of the Inn and Hausruck, 59·92 square miles, 197,573 inhabitants; and Saltzburg, 132·54 square miles, 141,699 inhabitants,	344·32	=	756,897
6. The dukedom of Styria,	398·98	=	799,056
7. The dukedom of Carinthia,	190·90	=	278,500
8. Illyria, 190·61 square miles, 358,831 inhabitants; and a part of Croatia, 60·34 square miles, 108,205 inhabitants,	250·95	=	467,836
9. The Coast district,	176·18	=	422,861
10. Tyrol and Vorarlberg,	520·44	=	717,542
11. The Lombard Venetian kingdom,	867·50	=	4,111,535
12. The government of Dalmatia,	274·94	=	295,089
13. The kingdom of Galicia,	1526·12	=	3,755,454
14. *Civil Hungary, Croatia, and Slavonia,*	4097·06	=	8,200,000
15. *Civil Transylvania,*	1118·70	=	1,510,000
16. *Transylvanian military frontiers,*			138,284

	Square Miles.		Inhabitants.
17. Banat frontiers,	186·00	=	171,657
18. Slavonian frontiers,	139·40	=	230,079
19. Warasdiner military government,	67·40	=	107,217
20. Carlstadter military government,	166·40	=	188,906
21. Banat regiments,	54·20	=	95,442
	12,204·43	=	28,178,836

II.—Dependent States.

1. Grand Dukedom of Tuscany,	431·00	=	1,170,000
2. Dukedom of Modena,	92·31	=	375,000
3. Dukedom of Massa and Carrara, with Garfagnana,	23·00	=	60,000
4. Dukedom of Parma,	101·62	=	383,000
	647·93	=	1,988,000

Making a total of 12,852·36 square miles, with 30,166,836 inhabitants.

These documents contain much interesting matter; and, as the latter points out the extensive territory, and the large population of this powerful empire, we are led, by comparing it with the statement of Rohrer, to perceive the resources which remain to be explored by succeeding generations. In the kingdom of Hungary, including Slavonia and Croatia, which is the more particular object of our present consideration, from a territorial extent of 4097 Austrian square miles, a space equal to 543 square miles, or between one-seventh and one-eighth of the whole, lies at present in the most unproductive state, yielding nothing but a scanty herbage to flocks and herds, in themselves numerous, but insignificant when compared with the hundreds of thousands which might be fed from the same lands, if they were converted into good pasture, or cultivated with grain.

In the Appendix will be found two other statements by Blumenbach, giving general estimates of the annual produce of grain and wine in the Austrian dominions; from each of which the vast importance of Hungary to that empire will be manifest, as above one-half of the wines, and nearly one-third of the grain raised in the empire and its dependencies, are derived from this kingdom alone, without including either Transylvania or the military frontiers.

It has been believed by some, that the neglected state of the cattle on these extensive plains, causes the frequent attacks of pestilential disease to which the herds are subject. Here, however, the dispute so often agitated, respecting the contagious or epidemic nature of certain diseases, has been renewed; and, upon the whole, it appears to be the prevailing opinion, that this destructive disease, known by the name of the *Lösedörre*, *Rinderpest*, or *Magenseuche*, is generally first introduced by contagion. Its most fatal ravages are felt, when the precautions of separating the infected animals from the sound are most neglected. This disease prevails in some part of Hungary almost every year, and is generally ascribed to communication with infected cattle, brought by dealers out of Walachia, Moldavia, or some of the provinces bordering on the eastern and north-eastern frontier. On the other hand, however, it is believed by many, that it is often generated in the cattle, by fatigue, and a deficient supply of food while travelling; and that, under these circumstances, the sick become sources of contagion to the herds of the countries through which they pass. Thus the Hungarians lay the blame of their misfortunes upon the Moldavians, and the Germans upon the Hungarians. This disease appears in the form of an acute fever, attended with inflammation of the membrane of the nostrils and fauces, followed in a few days by severe affec-

tions of the alimentary canal, and by fatal weakness and exhaustion. The desolation which it spreads is sometimes so great, that entire herds are inevitably swept away. In general, the mortality is such, that about one half of those attacked die. In the year 1812, 3074 died in the district of Little Cumania, where the whole stock of cattle was about 33,500, and in the same year, 773 horses died of a similar disease; this, however, conveys but a faint image of this formidable epidemic. In 1795, I find a statement of its effects in the village of Schellenberg in Transylvania, where, in the months of September, October, and November, in a stock of 776, 363 died. Ravages like this are experienced yearly in some district, either of Hungary or Transylvania; and though they may be most felt in the neglected herds which feed upon the uninclosed plains, exposed to all the changes of the climate,—to the cold of the night and the heat of the day,—yet, under the most careful management, the cattle are not secure from pestilence; and even on the estate of Urmeny, they had suffered severely the year before I visited that part of Hungary.

Descending a little, we again followed the banks of the river. It was wooded on the opposite side, and to our left, at the distance of a quarter of a mile, arose a low ridge of vineyards. The river at this part was studded with floating mills. Adony is another market village, chiefly composed of thatched cottages. After passing through it, we enjoyed a beautifully tranquil scene, looking towards a large island on the Danube, the property of the Duke Albert of Saxe-Teschen. The woods are rich, and afford luxuriant groupes, as viewed from the opposite bank. The villages upon this island possess an unusual degree of comfort. I have often, in the course of this narrative, had occasion to speak of the present Duke Albert of Saxe-Teschen, whose name can never be uttered with-

out sentiments of respect. At Vienna, we behold him in the light of a patron, liberally affording his ample means, and his rich collection, for the encouragement of the arts, and the instruction of their admirers. We find him, in Hungary, eagerly improving the agriculture of his adopted country, and diffusing wealth and happiness amongst a numerous peasantry; and we ought also to mention him as promoting learning and science, and administering charity on every side, by the establishment of important schools, and the endowment of asylums for the indigent. Such examples are not to be passed by the traveller without a tribute of applause; and we may safely say, that they excite imitation in the country where they occur.

Before we arrived at Eresin, we saw a large flock of improved sheep, the property of Graf Lillien, and a number of horses and cattle feeding on the plain; and we obtained from one point a commanding view of the whole island. From Eresin to Pesth, the road is not particularly interesting. Vineyards are planted on the left, and the river runs close upon the right. I here witnessed the difficulty experienced in drawing vessels against the stream of the Danube; for two or three, not heavily laden, were passing; and each, though the progress was very slow, required eighteen or twenty horses.

Arriving at Pesth, I took up my lodging in the *König von Ungern*; but, having already had occasion to speak of this city at some length, I shall say little more respecting it. I was obliged to spend two days here in endeavouring to get my passport so corrected, that I might be permitted to leave Hungary by the road of Galicia without returning previously to Vienna. Several individuals shewed their kindness to me upon this occasion, and I had a private

conversation with the Tavernicus, which, however, terminated in an assurance that there was no power at Buda authorized to make a change in my passport, which permitted me to travel with perfect freedom in Hungary, but that I must then present myself at the Bureau in Vienna. I learnt that I might probably have it arranged by sending the passport, without repairing thither in person; but sorry as I felt to change the plan of my tour, I thought it better than to incur the risk of indefinite delays, at a time when private circumstances limited the period of my journey. I therefore determined to turn my face towards Gratz, that I might thus intersect Hungary by a new route, and take the opportunity of passing through the beautiful province of Styria.

As we came to the bridge of Pesth, the moveable part was just opened to let the vessels pass which had collected there since the day before. This detention was but short, and we then retraced the road to Tétény. On leaving this we passed a little rising ground, and came upon more wide extents of corn land. The road was good, and a crowd of peasants, with their waggons, were busied in covering it with sand. The soil was black, and the crops promised fairly. About noon we arrived at Marton Vasar.

This is the residence of Graf Brunswick, to whom I had a letter of introduction. I found him on his farm at the moment of my arrival. He pressed me to stay, and, in consequence, I spent two very pleasant days at his estate. The Graf had passed some time in England, and was a great admirer of this country. Amongst other things which he had adopted from us was a gig, in which he proposed to me a tour round the domain. After viewing much good agriculture, we returned to the house, where we found an old gentleman who had accompanied the Graf to England, and who spoke

of it with an enthusiasm which could not but gratify an English ear. Whilst we sat in the garden awaiting the hour of dinner, and talking sometimes of England, sometimes of Hungary, the Graf's breeding horses were led by turns from the stables, that we might survey their beauties, for he likewise is taking great pains in the improvement of this important animal. About two o'clock we were summoned to dinner. I found myself seated amidst a charming family circle, consisting of the Graf, his mother, his nephews, and nieces, and the tutor.

In Hungary, as in most European countries except England, dinner does not occupy above an hour; and, as we were sitting after our repast in the music room, an officer was introduced. He was a major, who, with his regiment, was making his way from the furthest extremity of Transylvania to join the Austrian forces in Italy; and having performed his two posts that day, was about to rest his horses for the night at Marton Vasar, and came to pay his respects to the Graf. As the weather was delightful, it was proposed to amuse ourselves in the open air; and, accordingly, the *drosky* was ordered, and we all drove again into the fields. On our return, I found that the mother of the Graf had been inquiring from my servant what I liked best to eat and to drink, and not being able to discover any other penchant, had prepared some coffee for me;—a little attention, which I should scarcely have mentioned, but that it is truly characteristic of the kindness with which I met unceasingly in Hungary;—hospitality, which consists, not in forcing upon their visitors a pompous display for the gratification of their own vanity, but in a sincere desire to meet his wishes, and gratify his fancies. At supper the whole family again assembled to a regular meal, after which we soon retired to rest.

Early in the morning I walked in the garden, which the Graf has laid out in the style, universally called upon the continent *English*, that is, a style in which art is not allowed to disguise nature. It was a delightful spring morning,—all around me appeared so like England, that I almost fancied myself in my own country. There was much mutual good will in the intercourse between the family and the peasantry, and I could not but believe, that one who took delight in surrounding his house with objects, which silently, yet eloquently, spoke liberty and confidence, was well pleased to be released from the painful duty of exercising that rule which the law forces upon the Hungarian proprietors, when the jurisdiction, as well as the territory, is in their own hands.

At eight o'clock, I was summoned to take coffee with the Graf and his mother under the trees; and soon after, one of the young ladies of the family came to fulfil a promise I had obtained, of conducting me to some of the cottages in the village. We visited several, and found in all a great degree of comfort. The inhabitants consist of Germans, Hungarians, and Cyganis, of which the former are by far the most provident, careful, and thriving. We called upon one, who had lately furnished the cottage which he had built, as peasants generally do, almost entirely himself. In the ground plan of these habitations, there is scarcely any variety, whether it belong to a German or an Hungarian; and this plan scarcely varies from what I have before had occasion to describe. The neatness and order of this dwelling were complete. The walls were white, and adorned with numerous pictures of the Virgin Mary, our Saviour, and crucifixes. The good woman of the house was busy washing her furniture in the yard, and the peasant took us to his garden that we might see his flowers and his bees.

It was truly gratifying to find a peasant taking pleasure

in the cultivation of his flower-garden, which is, perhaps, one of the most certain marks, and best promises of rural civilization. We are not always sufficiently aware how great an influence is excited by trifling circumstances in the formation of important traits of national character. I am strongly inclined to believe, that the blazing hearth and the comfortable carpet do more to form the domestic character of the English nation, than any original disposition or physical temperament; and that the crowded theatres and tea-gardens of the continent give evidence of the want of comfort at home, rather than of the gaiety of the heart. Were I the proprietor of an Hungarian estate, my first attempt would be, to encourage my peasantry in cultivating their flower-gardens, certain as I should feel, that, by this means, I was strengthening their attachment to their homes, to their country, and to their hereditary lord; and I should never be better satisfied, than when every ploughman, and every shepherdess on my estate, could present my children with a finer nosegay than my own garden could produce,—when the village church should be filled with the fresh incense of the rose and the violet, and every grave be strewed with their blossoms.

At present, the few examples of cottage flower-gardens in Hungary are almost confined to the German settlers, who, more particularly in Transylvania and Zips, distinguish themselves in this respect; and Rohrer, in relating this trait of their character, remarks, that the time spent in the pursuit, causes no injurious interruption to their domestic and agricultural occupations; in the discharge of which, on the contrary, they are more than usually exact. It was a German who excited these reflections at Marton Vasar; and, as if aware of the feelings of my mind, and grateful for their intent, he presented me with a bunch of his brightest wall-flower.

We afterwards entered some of the gypsey cottages; but here I can only repeat what I have before said of that tribe of people. Their misery, from which they refuse to be raised, seems to a spectator excessive. From habit, however, it is not misery to them.

Our next visit was to the school, to which all the peasants are obliged to contribute, as well as their lord. The children are here taught to read and write the Hungarian, Slavonian, and German, and are also instructed in accounts; and the girls learn sewing and knitting. The school is attended irregularly. Most of the scholars were Germans, and chiefly children of the tradesmen, and not of the peasants.

I need not say that this village-tour confirmed the impressions I had previously received of the benevolent footing on which the connexion between peasant and landlord stood at Marton Vasar, and helped to throw a brighter light upon one spot, in a picture which must still remain for the greater part painted in gloomy colours. Several peculiar circumstances unite in rendering this place an exception to the general state of Hungary. In the *first place*, the invidious right, or duty of administering justice, is not here in the hands of the lord. *Secondly*, the family live upon the estate, and in that family are many female members. *Thirdly*, the Graf relies very little upon the robot of his peasantry for the cultivation of his land. And, may I not add, *fourthly*, that the Graf has peculiarly kind feelings, which have been rendered yet more powerful by his visit to England.

On our return, we found his mother in the garden, and were soon joined by the Graf himself, who was waiting to take me again upon his estate. Just as we had finished a pleasant dinner, two gentlemen made their appearance from Buda, who came upon business. One was the *Fiscal Ge-*

neral, whose duty it is to plead in the defence of the peasant in all trials which come before the high courts between the peasant and his lord. The other was a medical man. Their arrival did not, however, put a stop to an excursion which had been planned for me by the Graf, in order to see some extensive oil mills, which have been erected by Graf Lillien at Eresin. The new visitors joined our party, and we all set off together. The whole road lay over an open country. The mills are well constructed, and worked by horses; and the oil is obtained both in the hot and in the cold method, from linseed, rape, poppy, sunflower, and several other seeds. The quantity is considerable, and a great part is sent to distant towns, principally to Vienna. Graf Lillien was absent on a visit to Styria, to inspect some mills which he is erecting there. When we were about to return, a tremendous thunder storm came on, and we took refuge in the house of the clergyman. As it was seven o'clock, we surprised the family at their supper. They received us, however, with open arms. The clergyman is a young man of talents and attainments; as a proof of which may be mentioned, that, within six months after he was settled at this village, he was able to preach to the inhabitants in their own language, the Illyrian, of which he was totally ignorant when he first came to his flock. When the storm was passed, we returned home, and found the party anxiously awaiting our arrival.

On the following morning, after taking coffee with the Graf under the trees in the garden, serenaded as usual by the sweetest songs of the nightingale, I took, unwillingly, my leave of Marton Vasar. I must here, however, pause a few moments to give a short description of this estate, which is, in many respects, interesting. As a residence, nature has done

but little in its favour. The country is perfectly open, and, though not quite flat, is varied with but trifling irregularities. The proprietor, however, whose house is situated a few hundred yards from the village, is doing all in his power, by planting and by cultivation, to remedy the defects of nature; and he has already, in a considerable degree, succeeded. The estate, which the Graf conducts entirely himself, is almost wholly cultivated by hired servants, and consists of above 7000 joch, besides a large extent of open land, chiefly sheep-pasture, which he rents. In the village there are not above twenty entire sessions of peasants, and these are seldom called upon, except in the more busy seasons of the year, when all hands are required for gathering in the corn harvest, or for the vintage. The Graf seems to place much more dependence upon the exertions of men, who are regularly and well paid for their labour, than upon those of the peasantry, who seldom consider themselves paid at all, and work without spirit and without emulation.

There are then on this estate sixty men regularly paid, and hired by the year, and under their care are kept 170 oxen for labour. The whole is divided into four farms, with a complete set of buildings belonging to each, where a certain number of the labourers always live, and where the cattle are kept. The greater part of the land is cultivated in the ordinary mode, by a fallow every third year; but a considerable quantity is devoted to clover and lucern. The maize is sown in drills, and it had just now made its appearance above ground. It is suffered to rise about two feet, when it is cut, as an excellent green food for the cattle. The Graf also cultivates the *Panicum Germanicum*, which he finds very useful; sowing it at the end of May, and cutting it for green food in about two months. Small patches of burnet *(Sanguisorba officinalis)* are

likewise scattered about the estate, into which the sheep are occasionally driven for a quarter or half an hour, merely for its medicinal effect.

The flock upon the estate consists of about 5000 sheep; the fleece has been very carefully improved during the last few years, by crosses from the royal flocks; and a ram of three years old yielded the last year fifteen pounds of this improved wool. The rapid progress of the flock shews how much may be done under the care of an attentive proprietor.

This was the first instance I had met with of an estate so extensive being cultivated entirely under the personal superintendence of its owner, which, however, not unfrequently happens upon smaller properties. I once made a casual acquaintance with a nobleman, who explained to me particularly the way in which he managed an estate of 400 acres, situated in the *Pusta*, or uninhabited country between St Joan and Gyala. On this little estate he lives constantly. He has one upper-servant, and four under him, each entrusted with four oxen. To each of these he gives annually 100 florins, and three meals a day. He has no peasants, and this, he says, is the only advantageous plan of cultivating land. He divides his estate into three parts, for winter grain, and spring grain and fallow, always reserving 20 joch for lucern, which then remains good for ten years, and makes, in his opinion, an excellent food for his cattle. As soon as the corn is cut, he sows a few acres with carrots for the cattle, and the use of his family. There being very little wood in this neighbourhood, he has formed avenues of trees in the divisions of his estate, which, whilst they yield shelter and shade, will soon remedy the deficiency. Improvements of this kind are now to be found in all parts of Hungary.

A good road leads from Marton Vasar towards Valencze, over a flat country, cultivated in large extents, without trees or hedges. It was in this part of the country alone that I saw instances of habitations constructed under ground, formed by digging out the earth, and simply throwing a roof over the pit; and, as the sides were frequently cut neatly, and afterwards white-washed, and a tolerable light admitted by windows near the roof, I was by no means inclined to find fault with the comfort of these subterraneous dwellings. They were probably more frequent at the time when Brown visited Hungary; for he remarks, "in this country many families, and the inhabitants of divers little towns, live all under ground. I had formerly read of Troglodytes and subterraneous nations about Egypt; but I was much surprised to see the like in this place, and could not but say unto myself,

> "Now I believe the Troglodytes of old,
> Whereof Herodotus and Strabo told,
> Since every where, about these parts in holes,
> Cunicular men I find and human moles."

On the road, where some risings to the right are covered with vineyards, we overtook a large body of peasants and their waggons, engaged on public service, and loaded with casks of meal. We changed horses at Valencze, at a post-house situated on the borders of a small lake, and after another post, entered Stuhlweissenburg. This was, anciently, a town of splendour, built by King Stephan as a royal residence, and termed *Alba Regalis*. For five centuries the kings of Hungary were crowned, and their remains deposited in this town. In 1702, it was in a great degree destroyed; and although there are still many respectable buildings, and a character in some of

the houses which gives a stamp of greater nobility than is found in the generality of the Hungarian towns, it is, on the whole, but a mean and poor place.

I found a tolerable inn with a coffee-room, and of course a billiard-table. I dined with an officer and his wife, who lived at Moor. This place is about 15 miles from Stuhlweissenburg, and has experienced repeated and violent shocks of earthquakes, of which the most severe occurring in January and February 1810, has been described by Professor Kitaibel of Pesth. The conversation naturally turned upon this event. During the great convulsion, the earth opened,—several houses were thrown down,—and the dome of the Franciscan Church still shews a frightful fissure occasioned by the shock. In the present year, (1815,) three shocks occurred in one day. The last happened not more than six days before this conversation took place.

After the alarming phenomena of 1810, a commission was appointed by the government, consisting of Professor Kitaibel, Tomtsanyi, and Fabricy, to inquire into the circumstances; and they, accordingly, repaired immediately to the spot; but their investigation threw little light upon the subject. They describe Moor as situated in a valley, between hills entirely composed of magnesian limestone. From all the accounts they could collect, the mountain Csóka, near to Moor, was the central point of the earthquake; and that town and the neighbouring villages, in different directions, suffered most from its agitation. The first shock was experienced about four o'clock in the afternoon of the 14th of January; it lasted about seven seconds; and, throughout the whole night, subterraneous noises, resembling the reports of distant cannon, kept the inhabitants in constant alarm. This first shock was succeeded by many others through a course of several weeks, and,

occasionally, even for six months. One person distinctly counted 144 between the 22d of January and 5th of February; and others asserted, that, between the 14th of January and the 13th of February, they had felt 1000. Few of them lasted more than two seconds; they were more frequent and more severe in the night; and it was thought that a kind of regularity was observable with respect to their severity, so that the shocks were most felt in the evening, about midnight, and about three o'clock in the morning. The sensation produced was that of a sudden perpendicular shock, preceded by a report, and followed by a fluctuating motion, not simply undulating and passing on, but often moving backwards and forwards. The motion, however, was distinctly progressive; and persons both heard a noise approach, and saw the objects successively set in motion. Some who were going away from the hill of Csóka, hearing a loud report, looked back, and thought they saw the hill approaching them; and some, who, during the earthquake, were in the forest, perceived the trees move towards them with the undulation of the surface. The effect extended over several miles, and, amongst the villages which were particularly affected, are mentioned Guth, Isztimer, Veleg, Csákbereny, and Csurgo. Many towers were thrown down, or partially injured; and the earth in several places rent with fissures of 60 or 100 fathoms in length, and a foot in breadth. Some wells entirely lost their water, and springs burst out where before they did not exist. Three lives only were lost. Lightning was frequent during the period of the severest earthquakes; and some declared they had perceived a strong sulphureous odour.

This was one of the latest earthquakes of any importance which had occurred in Hungary. They are, however, by no means uncommon, either here or in Transylvania. Komorn,

in the last century, suffered severely from their effects. As late as the year 1813, both Pesth and Œdenburg experienced shocks upon the same day, in the month of September. In 1790, I find a severe shock mentioned as occurring at Hermanstadt in April; and in the following year, in January, at Nagy-banya, and the surrounding district. In October 1802, a most severe earthquake took place in the district denominated Burzenland, where, in the village of Brenndorf, it overthrew above fifty houses, and destroyed several of the country churches. In one place the motion was so great, that the roof of the church was, on one side, raised at least three yards from the wall, and then regained its situation before the building fell; and, at the village of Rothbach, Marienburg informs us, (in the *Zeitschrift von und für Ungern*,) that a column of water rose out of a fissure, formed by the convulsion, which continued to throw a fountain several feet into the air. The effects of this earthquake were experienced as far as Bukarest. Were it necessary, we might lengthen the catalogue of such phenomena in Hungary and Transylvania; but the neighbourhood of Moor has, of late years, been the most remarkable scene of such events; indeed, the very frequent returns in that district, give ground for some reasonable alarm for the future.

There was another object, not far from Stuhlweissenburg, to which my attention had been invited. This was an extensive distillery, carried on partly from grain, and partly from potatoes and plums, and said to be excellently conducted; but, as I could not conveniently visit it, I ordered my horses towards Weszprim. The part of the country in which we now are is celebrated for its numerous flocks, and the sheep-farms give the whole the appearance of extensive downs. We soon came to the residence of the Vicegespann, at Csor, surrounded by a

flourishing plantation of young oaks; but besides these, we passed no trees before we came to Palota.

Palota is a small market-town, situated on an uneven ground, with a church, and a very ancient chateau and outworks, which formerly rendered it a place of considerable strength. In the year 1686, when Buda was besieged by the Germans, under the Duke of Lothringen, General Dunewald, who commanded the cavalry at Stuhlweissenburg, made an attempt upon this place, then in the possession of the Turks, but found it so strong that he relinquished the undertaking. It was afterwards, however, dismantled, and is now almost reduced to a state of ruin. It is the frequent residence of Graf Zichy, the minister of police at Vienna; and its old square towers looked venerable, notwithstanding the modern green window-blinds with which they were embellished. The court-yard had in it, as usual, the table used for the infliction of punishment. In the castle-ditch, I heard the clanking of chains; and on a small eminence stood the gallows, facing a hill adorned with crosses, and the statue of a saint. Walking through the village, I heard the sound of music in a public-house, and entering, found that it proceeded from three Cyganis with their violins and violoncello, who played, whilst a party of half drunken peasants danced. It was the Hungarian irregular and violent dance, which I had before seen, performed by men alone; and in which, without the aid of wine, they become completely frantic. About six o'clock I left Palota. The beauty of the country improved, trees and low hills rising on each side; we passed a village romantically situated, and then a continuance of wide pastures, in which the limestone is very near the surface, brought us to Weszprim. The inn was large; but when I expostulated about the dirty sheets, I was assured, that " very

few persons had slept in the bed," and they thought me quite unreasonable not to be satisfied with this declaration. They complained somewhat of the want of good drinking water; but to remedy the deficiency, supplied me copiously with the mineral water of Füred, which is agreeable. Weszprim is curiously and romantically situated on a broken rocky limestone eminence. The bishop's palace, the monastery of the Franciscans, the seminary, the college of the Piarists, and the house of the comitatus, are built upon a large insulated crag, at whose base flows the river Sed, cutting off a part of the suburbs. To supply this rock with water, an ingenious piece of machinery has been constructed by a millwright of the country, which forces up the water of a spring in the valley, through leaden pipes, to the most elevated parts.—This is done by means of a wheel turned by the stream of the river; many other wheels are put in motion by the same stream, some serving to work mills, and others to move stampers for bruising the Hungarian gall-nuts, called *Knoppern*.

At an early hour the following morning, the streets were crowded with country people coming to attend the market. The women wore the largest head-dresses of white cloth I had ever seen. They brought all their little merchandise in baskets on their heads; a great many were carrying rye-bread, which, in this country, is an article of retail in the markets, and very seldom to be seen in shops. I observed many Jews about the streets, whose dress sufficiently distinguished them from all other classes. The market of Weszprim is important, as far as regards wine and grain, and seems better attended than even Stuhlweissenburg; but the town is not nearly so well built.—Quitting this place, we passed over elevated plains, where the soil scarcely covers the limestone rock, and yields but moderate crops. We soon came to a village, which might boast

of considerable beauty, although laid out quite on the Hungarian plan, along a wide road, with wells within a few yards of each other, through the whole street. The view was closed by wooded hills; and behind every cottage was an orchard or plum garden. The country became very delightful, and we passed other villages, in which the profusion of timber-work indicated a facility in obtaining that material. The remains of a square fortification, said to have been built by the Turks, stood upon an elevation near the road. All the villages in this part are inhabited by Germans. Indeed, since leaving Fünfkirchen, the German settlements had been so frequent, that a knowledge of the language of the country was scarcely necessary.

We were now in the forest of Bakony, and though in many parts the industry of the settlers had converted the forest into productive fields, there were yet distinct marks of the former state of the district. Villages occur here very frequently, and every thing seems to confirm the idea of the superior industry of the German settlers, when compared with the native Hungarians or Slavonians. Almost every cottage has a manufacture of the wooden rakes, shovels, and forks, used in agriculture; and when, after passing a beautiful country, hill, dale, forest, and corn-field, we arrived at Varos Löd, I requested the postmaster to conduct me to one of the workshops. In the middle of an orchard a shed was erected, covering an oven and a boiler. Here the peasant, with his partner and one or two hired men, were at work. They purchase the wood in the forest at a low rate, and then cut it into pieces of the size they require. At the time I saw them, they were making hay-forks, and this they performed with great dexterity. Having cut the wood into pieces of a proper size, they immersed them half their length in the boiler; after leaving

them for a quarter of an hour, they took them out, gave them the requisite degree of curvature, and joined the parts with pegs. They next put the prongs into a wooden grate-work, which served to retain their form, and placed the whole in the oven to be well baked, and very neat wooden hay-forks were thus produced. I was astonished to learn, that these were to be sold at less than 20 florins per hundred; and the Jews, taking advantage of times of poverty and distress amongst the peasants, often refuse to give more than 10 florins. This manufacture is, I am told, almost confined to a few villages lying in this part of the forest, which supply not only all Hungary, but also Transylvania and Vienna.

The next village at which I arrived has also its peculiar branch of rustic manufacture, the conversion of a species of *Boletus*, which grows upon the trees, into tinder for lighting pipes, an article which every Hungarian and German carries in his pocket, and of which Hungary exports above 300 centners annually. The cottagers have likewise a mode of preparing this so nicely, that it becomes a substance resembling leather, and is then made into pleasant light travelling caps. The general outline of the preparation is as follows: Having collected the fungi from the trees, the peasants lay them in a heap for a month, during which time their texture becomes less rigid. They are then roughly shaped, and the whole of the tubular part is removed. After this, they are boiled for 24 hours in a mixture of wood-ashes and water, and before they are quite dry, stretched into the proper forms and thickness, and sometimes beaten on a wooden anvil to facilitate the operation. The peasant, in whose cottage I got my information, seemed proud to have a visitor, and made me take some specimens of both his raw and his manufactured material.

This class of vegetable productions is more attended to on the continent than it is with us. Trattinick, an eminent Austrian botanist, has written a volume upon the esculent fungi of that country, and enumerates no less than thirty species, giving rules for preparing them, and explaining particularly the mode of discovering which species may be eaten with impunity. It is amusing to read this author's enthusiastic eulogy of this class of vegetables, and the important uses they serve in the system of nature; and in speaking of them as an article of food, he not inaptly quotes passages in Pallas's account of Russia, which shew that whole tribes depend on plants of this nature for a large portion of their nourishment.

After leaving the village, the country was still very beautiful, and the road passing over some hills, afforded delightful views of the forest beneath, into the thicker parts of which we soon entered. I have never seen a forest more picturesquely intermingled with open views and cultivated lands. The post village, Devecser, is the property of Graf Nicholas Esterhazy, who inherited it from Charles, titular bishop of Erlau. The ancient mansion-house is inhabited by the officers of the estate, and before the prison door is a guard-house, at which men are stationed, richly equipped as hussars. About a mile distant stands an insulated mountain, much celebrated for its wines. The country is flat and marshy. The peasants appear particularly attentive to the rearing of geese, which were feeding in every direction.

Sümeg is a small town, like an English country village, overlooked by a ruined castle situated upon a conical hill. The road now became even, and the pastures good. Here an accident happened, which called to my mind the miserable state of the posting apparatus to which I had been so accus-

tomed, that it scarcely attracted my observation. The leather of the postillion's stirrup gave way, and he nearly fell to the ground, not without various imprecations, to the employment of which the Hungarians are much addicted. He soon, however, hit upon a method of repairing his misfortune, by borrowing a hatchet from a cottage at a little distance, with which he deliberately cut a hole in his saddle, and secured a new fastening. It is only astonishing, that the harness used in Hungary answers so well the purpose for which it is intended; rope, leather, and chains, are all joined promiscuously; knots are secured by sticks and buckles supplied by thongs.

The sun had set before we reached Szalaber, a village which I had previously visited on my route to Keszthely. Owing to a difficulty which arose with regard to horses, we passed the evening, till ten o'clock, on the road before the post-house, and then set off with cattle furnished by a peasant; a young colt running by our side. Our progress was slow, but the night delightful; the nightingale sang without ceasing, and towards break of day, the blackbirds, larks, and other warblers, began their notes in so powerful a strain, that I at length became quite wearied with listening, and before we got away from Vasvar, about five in the morning, had fallen asleep in spite of all their music. The next stage was flat and cultivated, the rye fields in full ear, and the horizon shut in by wood.

Körmond is the property of Fürst (*i. e.* Prince) Batthyani, who has here an ancient mansion, with round towers at its corners, attached to which is a very handsome garden in the old French taste, with considerable hothouses and conservatories. He resides, however, chiefly at Vienna, and had not visited this place for several years. The town itself is very poor in appearance; there are, indeed, no good houses, except those immediately attached to the mansion of the Fürst.

It is built in an open airy plain. Beyond Körmond the country is still flat and cultivated. We passed Csákány, a small market town belonging to Graf Batthyani, who resides chiefly at Gratz. The fields were here inclosed by growing hedges, which gave the country a much more cheerful and cultivated appearance. The distance is every where wooded, and rather elevated. We passed two or three little villages before we came to St Mihály, the post-house, which was very pleasantly situated in an orchard. I was glad to rest myself a little after the burning heat of the morning, in conversation with the postmaster, a young man, who placed a bottle of wine on the table. Soon after leaving this post, I saw the first wood of fir trees which had occurred during my tour in the South of Hungary. The country was more broken, and the horizon considerably higher. We passed many Hungarian villages ;—the houses built chiefly of wood. The post villages were German, and the people seemed in good spirits from the promising appearance of the crops. The forests of fir became more frequent, and there was already some variety to be observed in the dress of the people. The women had thick white petticoats, covered with a large blue pattern ; the aprons blue, the boots heavy, white shirt sleeves, and large white cloth head-dresses. I observed an extensive forest of oak, apparently six weeks later in its vegetation than any we had passed. On inquiry, it appeared that this arose from the ravages of a destructive species of caterpillar, stripping the whole forest of its leaves ; which the peasants told me was here no uncommon occurrence. I find the agricultural writers of Transylvania speaking frequently of this circumstance, and their fruit-nurseries, in particular, seem to suffer greatly from these insects.

We now fast approached the frontiers of Hungary, and it was with regret that I prepared to quit a country, in which I had been received with the most marked hospitality, and which I had examined with the greatest interest. An extensive and rich country, noble leaders, the spirit of improvement gone abroad, and that spirit actuating the higher class, where improvement must begin, in order to be beneficial and permanent,—what may we not hope for the future? With a little more knowledge of what is wanting, and the same zeal for doing good, the free and powerful nobles will be the lords of a free and powerful peasantry; and Hungary, going hand in hand with Austria, to which its interest must ever unite it, will become that great, that flourishing, that populous country, which, from the variety of its climate, the richness of its soil, the magnitude of its mines, and its commanding situation, as the portal and barrier of the east, it appears destined for by nature, when moulded into a strong and consistent form, capable of resisting the incursion of foreign enemies.

A total change is observed in all the external objects on reaching the frontier of Styria. The peasantry and their habitations, the cattle, the mode of agriculture, the very forests themselves, have changed. The monotonous dress which marks the Hungarian peasantry is laid aside, the houses are no longer disposed in regular villages, of uniform and unvaried, though mean appearance,—the tall grey cattle are exchanged for a more compact breed, with short horns, and of different shades of brown, affording new interest to the scenery. The land is more carefully cultivated, and its divisions smaller; and in the forests, the oaks become intermixed with pines. Shortly after we had passed the Hungarian boundary, we ascended a steep bank, and entered the fortress of Fürstenfeld. This is considered the frontier town, and we were accordingly assailed

by a host of officers, some demanding passports, some claiming dues, and some customs.—The examination of my passport, and a couple of florins as *trinkgeld*, satisfied all their wishes, and, after changing horses, we were allowed to proceed. The buildings within the fortress are of little importance, the habitations are generally insignificant, and a few barracks and store-houses give it the character of a military station. Some parties of invalids, on foot and in waggons, had just set forwards to take charge of the hospitals attached to the Austrian army in Italy.

In this neighbourhood tobacco is much cultivated; the scenery of the country, as we proceeded, was exceedingly beautiful, the crops of rye and clover were luxuriant, and the rising grounds on all sides covered with a pleasing mixture of the fir, and other forest trees, while the mountains rose superbly at some distance. As we approached Ilz, we passed a large house belonging to a Graf, one of the chief of the family of Batthyani, where, I was informed, the Gräfin, his lady, generally resided, being much attached to the country, and the care of a dairy, which she had brought to great perfection. The branches of this family are numerous, and their possessions in Hungary very extensive; and it requires more local information, than falls to the share of the traveller, to assign to each estate its proper possessor. The following interesting account, however, of one of the family, who takes his distinctive title from a town near the spot we are at this moment describing, is well authenticated, and does too much honour to the name to be passed without notice. "Graf Emerich Batthyani, of Nemeth-Ujvar, is himself an excellent physician, and few places to which invalids resort for their health, will be found more frequented than the mansion of the Graf at Polgardi in Hungary. Persons of all

conditions, and of all religious persuasions, there receive, without distinction, gratuitous relief. He dispenses the medicines gratis, and with so much benevolence and care, that he puts all other concerns out of view, when patients require his assistance; and of these a considerable number assemble daily, for they come in crowds to the Graf, so that his house is frequently beset with vehicles from the counties of Stuhlweissenburg, Tolna, Weszprim, Szalad, Schümeg, Pesth, Komorn, and other remote districts. It is impossible that more kindness could be exhibited, if he were regularly paid for his attendance. When he understands that any of his peasantry are ill, and unable to come, he repairs to their cottages, however distant they may be, and sends the necessary relief; and it is not only with medicines, but with grain, money, and other benefactions, that he endeavours to soften their calamities. He is the father as well as the lord of his peasantry. A few years ago he forgave them all their tithes; and in the last year, when he saw much distress from the badness of the harvest, he gave up the tithes of the maize, which amounted to a very large value, and assisted them freely with grain for seed." This is a picture of private worth, which requires no comment.

After passing Ilz, the day, which had been oppressively hot, became clouded, and we enjoyed the most delightful drive along a valley with a gentle ascent. The hills on the south were high, covered with beautiful forest. We now crossed the river Raab, a short distance from Gleisdorf, and began to ascend more rapidly. The valley towards the north opening into a mountain bosom, was rich with flowering meadows,---the cottages we passed were built with picturesque irregularity, and when we had gained the summit of the ridge, we enjoyed an enchanting view. The sloping ground on each side was clothed with the most varied foliage, the vallies were

smiling beneath our feet, and the chain of Styrian mountains rose in successive groups in the distance: the evening now gradually advanced, the mountains ceased to throw their lengthened shadows, and night had already closed the scene, before we entered the suburbs of Gratz.

I rose early on the following morning, which was Sunday, and by six o'clock, mingled with the throngs of country people, who were repairing to the town, on affairs of pleasure or devotion. The costume both of the men and of the women was singular, and struck me the more forcibly, from its contrast with all which I had lately seen. The head-dress of the women who belonged to Gratz itself, or the neighbouring villages, as the maid-servants, daughters of inferior tradesmen, or small farmers, generally consisted of a cap of heavy gold lace, in the shape of a helmet, not unlike that which is worn by women of the same class in Vienna. In their forms, these caps vary a little, the sides being frequently very broad, and opening wide backwards, almost in the manner of butterflies' wings. The gold is often richly varied with alternate stripes of embossed silver lace, or with embroidered figures; others wear a cap of the same form, made of black silk and lace, while others again have the black silk richly worked with flowers. Most of the women, who might strictly be considered as peasantry from the country, wore broad hats of light coloured felt, in shape nearly the same as those of Holland, and like them, lined with linen, which is brought over to cover half the brim on its upper part. In Holland, the colour of the linen is generally a light blue, either plain or patterned; here, however, it is of some dark colour. They all wore double handkerchiefs about the neck and shoulders, and a tight bodice of some gay colour, cut low in the back, with a triangular false cape, running in a point almost to the waist. The country men had likewise

broad hats, with a ribbon or wide gold lace around it,—a little coloured silk handkerchief about the neck, and a fancy waistcoat, with ornamented braces on the outside, by which the short dark coloured small clothes were suspended. Their stockings were blue, and they wore neat half boots, lacing before in a point. Some had jackets, but the greater part, as their Sunday dress, wore long frock coats, of some dark cloth, generally green, and ornamented with many large shining buttons.

As the road before the door of my residence was all day crowded by a considerable number of people going backwards and forwards, several beggars had taken up their stations, within sight of my window, and I observed, that scarcely any one passed, without contributing something to relieve their wants. Those who could not afford to give a piece of three kreutzers, made no hesitation of desiring the beggar to give them a kreutzer or two kreutzers in return. It seemed a species of toll, rather than a charitable donation.

The town of Gratz is situated on the river Muhr, in a romantic valley; it is surrounded by mountains, and within it rises a limestone crag where the fortress stood, which, in 1809, when the French got possession of the town, was entirely destroyed. The whole town was likewise regularly fortified, but the miseries to which this circumstance exposed the inhabitants in times of war, induced the Austrian government to determine on destroying the wall as opportunities may permit; and I found them already levelling a large space and filling up the ditch, with a view of increasing the botanic garden of the Joannæum. Some parts of the town are well built, and there are several ornamental churches, and a good theatre, with a tolerable company of players. As Gratz is the seat of the Styrian government, a branch of the general admi-

nistration of Austria, it is the residence of a great many of the nobility, and some of the Hungarian families make it their winter abode. Society is said to be placed here on a very agreeable footing. The women are reputed handsome, though this does not particularly strike a stranger; they are said to possess much general information, and such as renders them pleasant in conversation.

Gratz is rich in charitable institutions, and in establishments for education; of the former, the principal is a comprehensive institution for the *care of the poor*. This is divided into seven separate departments. 1*st*, The hospital in which the patients are received, according to their circumstances, either gratis, or on paying at the rate of 10 kreutzers, 30 kreutzers, or a florin per day. 2*d*, The lying-in charity, of which, as it differs much from any thing in this country, I shall give some particulars, extracted from the rules of the house. The object is to afford to unfortunate women an asylum, and not only to shield the mother from public shame and from want, but to give protection to the guiltless infant. The patients consist of four classes, like those of the general hospital, the first class having separate chambers and nurses. Those who pay are received from every part of the country, without any regard to their condition in life. Those who are received without pay, and for whom ten beds are appropriated monthly, must bring proof of their real poverty, and of their having become pregnant within the limits of the city, or of having lived there during ten years at some former period of their lives. If, however, in very urgent cases this rule is dispensed with, the mother is obliged to take charge of her own child, or to pay herself the appointed sum to the parish on which the burden falls. Married women can have no claim to be received into this house, and exceptions are made in very few instances.

The women who pay are only required to speak to the surgeon in chief, who is also the accoucheur, respecting their admission, and may at any time be received on paying for a month in advance; but if they are sufficiently recovered to leave the house before the expiration of that time, the balance is restored to them, and the surgeon gives all the requisite information to the board of directors regarding the circumstance of the admission.

Those who wish to be received gratis, must apply to the governor and committee of the institution, and shew their proper certificates; and when these are satisfactory, the patient is referred to the surgeon, who takes the patient under his care, and communicates the circumstance to the board.

It is not requisite that any woman who is received, whether gratuitously or for pay, should declare herself to any other than those above mentioned; and as secrecy is the great rule of the establishment, all inquiries respecting the father, or other circumstances not immediately connected with the prescribed rules of admission, are strictly prohibited.

When the patient has been declared a proper object, she may come to the house at any hour either of the day or night, and the porter will shew her to the room prepared for her reception, or if she does not chuse to apply to him, the surgeon will do it. Women who pay a florin, or 30 kreutzers, are not even required to declare their true names. It is, however, necessary that they should write their real Christian and surnames upon a ticket, sealed up, and in that way shewn to the surgeon; this the woman keeps in her own possession, having the number of her chamber and bed marked upon it, so that, in case of death, the officers may give the proper information to the relatives. Those who pay are likewise at liberty to disguise themselves with masks or veils,

or in dresses of any kind they please, may enter at the very hour of labour, and may leave the house as soon as they please, or, if the surgeon think it proper, may remain longer than the usual period. They may either take the child with them, or put it to board at their own expence, or deliver it, on payment of 18 florins, to the provincial foundling institution, just as suits their views.

The *third* department of this institution comprises the orphan and foundling house. The former provides for children who are bereft of their parents by death, the latter for illegitimate offspring and children who have been exposed. Where poverty is proved, the children are taken free of all expence; in other cases, a certain small sum is paid at the time the child is received; and in the case of exposed children, the parish pays the sum required.

The *fourth* department is an asylum for lunatics; the *fifth* an alms-house for old people; the *sixth* consists of a fund for pensioners connected with the hospitals; and the *seventh* of a similar fund in connection with the alms-house. I was conducted over the greater part of the buildings appropriated to the different objects of this national charity, and, in general, the whole appeared to be conducted with much care and judgment.

The most interesting public institution at Gratz is the Joannæum, which takes its name from the Archduke John, its founder. This prince, who has distinguished himself by his love of knowledge, perhaps above any prince in Europe, and who is truly worthy of the high situation in which his birth has placed him, and of the estimable imperial family of which he forms a part, had pursued, with unceasing assiduity, an investigation into the resources both natural and political of Styria. He had himself surveyed every romantic scene, gathered every

mountain flower, estimated the capability of every rich valley, and drawn his conclusions as to what was excellent, and what still remained to be improved; and wishing to make the stores he had collected, and the information he had gained, of substantial use to the country, determined to present his valuable collections and library to the inhabitants of the capital, that they might afford the means of instruction to the people, and prove an encouragement to farther research. The Archduke, accordingly, gave the whole of this treasure, consisting of an herbarium, which contained 14,000 specimens, and a large store of minerals, an extensive library, philosophical instruments, and manufactured produce, to the town of Gratz. These were deposited in a large building, formerly a private house, purchased for the purpose; and in the course of a year or two, lectures on chemistry, botany, mineralogy, astronomy, and manufactures, were established; a reading-room was likewise opened, which was supplied with above fifty different periodical scientific publications. The example of the Archduke soon induced several other persons to contribute towards completing so desirable an object; and amongst the liberal benefactors, Graf von Egger added most essentially to the collection, by presenting his valuable cabinet of natural history, and his library, the former of which had been formed by Hohenwart, Bishop of Linz, and contained a most excellent herbarium, enriched by the labours of Wulfen and of Pallas. The lectures which are given at this institution are highly esteemed, and frequented both by students and by the inhabitants of the town at large. Professor Mohs, who lectures on mineralogy, is well known for his extensive and accurate acquaintance with that science, and as the founder of a new system of mineralogical arrangement, in which he has endeavoured to put every thing

out of consideration, except the characters strictly external, adopting the colours and the crystallization, without, however, at all following the system of Haüy. Professor Vest reads lectures on botany and chemistry, in the Joannæum, Newmann on astronomy, Jenko on technology, and Schallgruber on the means of resuscitating persons apparently drowned.—This last course of lectures has lately been appointed in all the lyceums and schools, for the advanced branches of education, throughout the Austrian territories, and is frequently delivered on the Sabbath. If there be any occupation, which a nation can be pardonable for countenancing on the Sabbath, except the peculiar avocation of the day, it is assuredly the attendance upon useful lectures of practical science; a custom which prevails in Vienna, as well as Gratz. In the former of these capitals, I have often attended lectures on chemistry on the Sabbath, and found them frequented by a number of industrious artisans, who would have been totally unable to devote their week-days to this instructive and rational pursuit. Although the Joannæum was originally quite unconnected with the public education of the country, the students of medicine have lately been permitted to avail themselves of certificates from the professors, as forwarding their claims to academic honours at Vienna.

Besides the Gymnasium and other public schools at Gratz, there is a place of education denominated the Lyceum, which bears most of the characters of an university, being endowed with the privilege of conferring degrees in philosophy and theology. In the year 1272, the Emperor Rudolph established a public school at Gratz, which, during the absence of Charles in Spain, in 1568, was converted by the Styrian nobles into a Lutheran school. That monarch, however, on his return, introduced the Jesuits in 1571, and shortly after put the

school entirely into their hands. These active teachers quickly extended the original plan, added to the usual objects philosophy and theology; and, in 1586, obtained the privileges of an university, and the power of conferring degrees in those two faculties. In this form the establishment remained till 1782, when it was changed into a lyceum, still retaining the privilege of making its own graduates. At that time were appointed four professors of theology, two of law, two of medicine, and three of philosophy, besides one of political economy. The whole has since undergone many partial changes; and, according to the present system, the philosophy course continues three years, and is conducted by seven professors. The course of theology used to occupy five years, and employs nine professors; but the time has been reduced to four years. The medical professors amount to eight; and the period devoted to law is four years. The whole number of students in the lyceum is between 500 and 600, and the chief remuneration of the professors arises from fixed salaries, from 500 to 1000 florins, paid by government from certain estates assigned for the purpose. Attached to the lyceum is a valuable library, consisting of 100,000 volumes, which, since the year 1781, has been open to the public, and any person is permitted, during five hours of the day, to read in an adjoining room, where a catalogue is deposited for reference, and where writing-materials are provided.

Several manufactures are conducted with spirit in Gratz, and its immediate vicinity, as those of cotton, silk, leather, earthen-ware, and optical instruments, but the most important are for articles of steel and iron; in the fabrication of which much machinery is employed. I visited a manufactory of this kind for making nails, and found the process very simple, but admitting, I should imagine, of great improvement. The bar of iron being rolled into a plate, as

wide as the intended length of the nail, with an elevated margin along one side, is cut into shreds by means of a press, working like the ordinary coining machines, but of so small a size as to stand upon the table. These pieces of iron are then given to another workman, who, with a similar press, cuts a portion diagonally from them, thus forming a point. The iron is now nearly shaped into a nail, and being put into a hole fitted to receive it, piercing an anvil, slips through till it is stopped by the head, which, by three smart blows of a hammer, acquires its proper form. Thus the nail is completely formed, and nothing farther is requisite but to polish it well, by putting a great number together into a barrel, to which a rotatory motion is given.

I cannot, in this place, do better than introduce a short general statement, published by Sartori in 1812, of the manufactures and commercial intercourse then existing in Styria. The changes which have since taken place in Europe, have, in some degree, modified the latter, and peace will gradually exert its influence upon the state of the manufactures. As far, however, as this view respects the natural produce of Styria and the surrounding countries, it must still continue to afford correct information.

"The most important manufactures in this country are connected with its mineral products, as the steel furnaces, where the famous Prescian steel is prepared; the numerous forges for plate iron; iron-wire works; founderies; the number of scythe makers, particularly in Upper Styria; the manufactories of iron utensils; some sulphur and alum works; many very important saltpetre works and limekilns; one brass and one tin-plate manufactory; a few silk and many paper-mills; glass-houses and potteries, and one establishment for spining cotton by machinery at Burgau.

"The most considerable export trade is in metallic produce, and next to this, wine and grain. The traffic with the other Austrian provinces consists particularly in the following articles: The *imports* from Lower Austria; porcelain and pottery ware; looking-glasses; all ornamental articles of dress; Nurenburg wares; woollen and silk stockings; saffron and mustard. From Carinthia and Illyria, earthen-ware, quicksilver, cinnabar, straw and wood-ware, silk and silk-goods, cloth, liqueurs, and tortoises. From Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia, glass, tobacco-pipes, hops, various carved articles, and Carlsbad ware, thread, &c. From Hungary, colours, earths, noble metals, potash, grain, knoppern, tobacco, fruit, wine, fish, wool, soap, and tobacco-pipes.

"The *exports* to other Austrian provinces are medicinal waters, particularly the acidulous water of Rohits, to Lower Austria, Carinthia, Illyria, Hungary, and Croatia. To almost all the provinces, iron, iron-ware, and steel; also vitriol, salt, and wine, to Carinthia. To Lower Austria, Carinthia, and Hungary, poultry and game; horned cattle to the province below the Enns; wine, wax, and honey, to the province above the Enns.

"The chief *imports* from foreign countries are from the Confederacy of the Rhine, flax-seed, linseed, woad, and various drugs. From Russia, tea, Russia leather, &c. From the Levant, sal-ammoniac, borax, cotton, camel hair, rice, and spices. From Italy, oil, rice, fruit, silk, treacle, and oysters. From England, some articles of steel-ware and leather. From America, rice, indigo, vanille, &c. From East India and China, canes, spices, drugs, silk and cotton-ware. The *exports*, on the other hand, are iron and iron-ware, to Russia, Turkey, and Italy. Iron and steel in bars both to those countries, and to Germany, Spain, England, and Holland;

lead and glue to Italy; wine to Bavaria; lard to the Levant, north of Africa, and India; grain to Salzburg; horned cattle to Venice and Bavaria. On the whole, Styria gains several millions of florins yearly by its commerce, without including the transit trade.

"The transit trade between Trieste and Vienna is one of the most extensive in Europe. At the two fairs of Gratz, the Raitzan, Turkish, and Armenian merchants carry on a great traffic; and the transit between Austria and Illyria and Turkey is of much importance to the former."

From this general view of the commerce of Styria, it appears that the two great sources from which it derives its importance and its prosperity, are its mines and its agricultural industry.

Iron is the chief mineral product of Styria; and the principal mines of this valuable metal are worked in the neighbourhood of Eisenärtz, at the distance of two posts to the westward of Leoben. Here a bed of sparry iron-ore is found, forming the greater part of a small hill, called the Erzberg, where the ore has been worked partly in open pits and partly in shafts and galleries; and, although it appears probable that these mines were explored long before the Christian era, and were known to the Romans, they still continue to afford stores which seem inexhaustible. These mines, and the smelting works and forges connected with them, are divided into two districts, the Innernberg and Vordernberg works. The administration of the whole has been very defective, but in 1808 and 1810, arrangements were made, by which the greater part is now under the immediate direction of the Austrian government. Another object which has called for peculiar attention in this district, is the condition of the forests; for, by improvident consumption of

timber, a deficiency of fuel has frequently been experienced, and the prejudices of the country have hitherto prevented the employment of coal, which occurs in considerable quantities in Styria. In spite, however, of these unfavourable circumstances, the whole produce of the mines of Erzberg amounted, in the course of the eighteenth century, to 65,757,650 centners of ore, which yielded 21,919,210 centners of raw iron; and there existed in the year 1812, in Styria, 28 iron smelting works, 98 iron and steel forges, 38 manufactories of scythes, 8 works for drawing wire, 7 for making iron vessels, and many others of the same character:—the number of these works is, indeed, estimated much higher by some writers, who have stated the forges and smelting works to amount to 200; and Bisinger calculates the yearly produce of Styria at 300,000, and that of Carinthia at 200,000 centners of raw iron.

Styria has likewise two copper mines, of which the principal is at Kahlwang; and many lead mines, some yielding silver. The salt-works of Sandling and Ausee, on the borders of Styria towards Salzberg, are very productive. The salt is obtained in two different modes, either as rock-salt in square masses, cut from the solid walls of the pit, or when the salt is less pure, it is procured by introducing water into chambers formed for the purpose, where it remains several months, till it forms a brine of sufficient strength, which is then drawn off into a reservoir, whence it is conducted into evaporating pans, and the salt collected. This process is carried on to great extent, and in the salt mountain of Ausee there are no fewer than 90 sets of chambers, each consisting of 800 or 1000, and each of them capable of containing 1800 Vienna eimers. The elevated situation in which the salt here occurs, gives facility to the process of drawing off the brine, as the entrance of the mine is more than 500 toises above the

level of the sea. The annual produce of the Ausee salt-mine exceeds 150,000 centners.

In speaking of the mineral riches of this country, we ought not to overlook the fine quarries of marble which occur in the extensive limestone districts, and those of St Lambrecht, Elsenau, and Kapferstein, deserve particular notice.

With respect to the second source from which Styria derives its wealth, that is, its agricultural produce, it may be truly said, that scarcely any other province of Austria is so much favoured by nature, or derives more from the industry of its inhabitants. In extent, this country is not very considerable; it contains altogether about 398 square miles; of this about 150 square miles are calculated to be forest; and the rest, of which 59 miles are open pasture, is appropriated to grain or to the rearing of cattle, according to the diversity of soil and situation. The variety in these respects is great, for Styria is formed of the rich vallies of the Muhr, the Murz,—parts of the vallies of the Drave and the Enns,—the two limestone ridges which run nearly north and south,—and the mountains of granite and clay-slate which chiefly occupy the south and south-west, under the denomination of the Judenburg and Schwanberg Alps, the mountains of Marburg and others;—thus presenting every variety of climate of which its geographical situation will admit.

The chief agricultural products are wheat, rye, barley, oats, maize, flax, hemp, and clover. The latter is particularly esteemed, and 2000 centners of clover-seed are annually exported. In the management of meadows, irrigation is extensively practised. The dairy farms are very productive; the cattle from the vale of the Murz are much admired; and, on all the mountain slopes, the Alpine pastures produce rich milk. In the beginning of June the cows are driven to the high lands, and in the end of

the same month to the highest mountain pastures, and return before the end of September. Stall-feeding is partially adopted, and fattened oxen of the Styrian breed sometimes weigh from 10 to 15 centners. Sheep, goats, and swine, are also objects of the farmer's attention; and the poultry is remarkable for size, a barn-door fowl often weighing from seven to nine pounds.

The forests, which are extensive, have been neglected, and the culture of the vine is not well understood. Notwithstanding which, excellent wines are produced about Marburg, Luttenberg, and Gonowitz; and the quantity annually yielded by Styria is calculated at two millions of eimers.

After remaining at Gratz a few days, I set forward on my road to Vienna, and a more beautiful valley is scarcely to be found, except in the heart of Switzerland and the Tyrol, than that through which the road passes to the very northern boundary of Styria. We first followed the valley of the Muhr on both sides, confined by delightful mountain scenery; then turning to the right, we enjoyed the fertile vale of the Murz; mountains still rising on each side, on the one gently swelling, on the other towering majestically into the highest Alps. At length we were to ascend the natural barrier of this country, and having passed the summit of the lofty Semmering, we arrived towards the close of evening at Schotwien, the first town within the confines of Austria Proper. I will not dwell upon the beauties of its situation. Sunk deep in the rocky gateway of the mountain, it forms an entrance to new scenes, and may with propriety be chosen as a resting-place for our present labours.

APPENDIX.

APPENDIX.

GENERAL VIEW

OF THE

KINGDOM OF HUNGARY,

PUBLISHED IN 1815,

BY PROFESSOR SENNOWITZ AT EPERIES;

The division of Hungary into four districts and fifty-two counties, with a correct statement of the superficial extent, the mountains, lakes, and rivers, and the chief natural products; the number of royal free towns, market towns, villages, and prædia. Besides which, the places of the comitatus, or county meetings, the names of the most remarkable towns, and some large market towns, with their present population, the interesting objects, and the population of each comitatus, are accurately marked, according to the most correct calculation made in 1815, *from modern authorities, calendars of the church, and the lists of the superintendents.*

First District.

1. *Pressburger Comitat.*—Extent, 82 square (German) miles. Mountains, commencement of the Carpathians. Rivers, Danube, Morava. Produce, wine, fruit, fish, grain, game. Contains 5 royal free towns, 23 market

towns, 239 villages, 48 prædia. Town of assembly, Pressburg, a royal free town, with 22,159 inhabitants. Population of the whole comitatus, 196,648. Remarkable objects, the fruitful island of Schütt-Wajka, or Csallaköz, with its connected prædia; the districtual court at Tyrnau; the wine called Sz. Georger Ausbruch. Pressburg is the town at which the kings are crowned, handsome and well built, with a royal academy and an evangelical gymnasium. The flying bridge over the Danube.

2. *Neutraer Comitat.*—Extent, 121 square miles. Mountain, Czobor. River, Waag. Produce, grain, wine. Contains 1 royal free town, 37 market towns, 415 villages, 47 prædia. Place of assembly, Neutra, a bishop's see, with a population of 3848. Population of the whole comitatus, 310,689. Remarkable objects, the Kopanitzer on the Moravian frontiers; the hot-baths on the Waag near Pöstheny; the mineral waters of Omor and Bajmotz.

3. *Trenchiner Comitat.*—Extent, 87 square miles. Mountain, Beszked. River, Waag. Produce, sheep, wood. Contains 1 royal free town, 19 market towns, 385 villages, 13 prædia. Place of assembly, Trenchin, a royal free town, with 2131 inhabitants. Population of the whole comitatus, 239,706. Remarkable objects, the warm-baths at Töplitz; the agreeable little town of Rajecz, with its surrounding country; the rocks at Szulyo.

4. *Arvaer Comitat.*—Extent, 34 square miles. Mountains, Babagura, Cots. River, Arva. Produce, flax, wood, sheep, oats. Contains 5 market towns, 96 villages, 3 prædia. Place of assembly, Also-Kubin, a market town, with 546 inhabitants. Population of the whole comitatus, 84,702. Remarkable objects, rich peasants, poor nobles; a salt spring, which is not used, at Polhora; a fertile plain, three miles in length, by Namesto and Velistna; a curious swinging bridge, 47 klafters long, over the Arva at Mokragy; an excellent road of 12 miles (above 50 English) in length.

5. *Liptoer Comitat.*—Extent, 42 square miles. Mountain, Krivan. River, Waag. Produce, wood, flax, cheese, antimony. Contains 10 market towns, 123 villages, 1 prædium. Place of assembly, Sz. Miklos, a market town, with 4162 inhabitants. Population of the whole comitatus, 62,205. Remarkable objects, the Dragon-cave at Demenyfalva; the manufacture of arms at Hradek; and the saw-works for timber.

6. *Thurotzer Comitat.*—Extent, 21 square miles. Mountain, Fatra. River, Waag. Produce, leather, beet, poppies. Contains 6 market towns, 98 villages, 5 prædia. Place of assembly, Sz. Marton, a market town, the population of which is 1906. Population of the whole comitatus, 38,235. Remarkable objects, the caves of Mazarna and Dupna; hot-baths at Stuben; the balsam sellers from this comitatus wander about both in the country and in foreign lands.

7. *Barscher Comitat.*—Extent, 49 square miles. Mountain, Klyag. River, Gran. Produce, grain, metals. Contains 2 royal free towns, 11 market towns, 206 villages, 24 prædia. Place of assembly, Arany Maroth, a market town, with 1775 inhabitants. Population of the whole comitatus, 101,379. Remarkable objects, Kremnitz, the chief mining town, with a mint famous for its ducats; warm-baths at Wichnye and Glashütte, and at Schwitzloch; Hlinik famous for millstones.

8. *Zolyomer or Sohler Comitat.*—Extent, 50 square miles. Mountain, Sturetz. River, Gran. Produce, sheep, metals. Contains 5 royal free towns, 8 market towns, 148 villages, 2 prædia. Place of assembly, Neusohl, a royal free town, with 10,069 inhabitants. Population of the whole comitatus, 54,117. Remarkable objects, Neusohl, a Catholic bishop's see, and the place of the mining jurisdiction; with an evangelical gymnasium; a Damascus blade manufactory; copper water at Herrengrund; hot-spring at Ribar.

9. *Great Honther Comitat.*—Extent, 46 square miles. Mountain, Szitzna. River, Ipoly. Produce, grain, silver, gold, tobacco, wine. Contains 3 royal free towns, 9 market towns, 176 villages, 32 prædia. Place of assembly, Ipoly-Sagh, a market town, with 785 inhabitants. Population of the whole comitatus, 85,414. Remarkable objects, Schemnitz, a celebrated mining town, rich in gold and silver, the residence of the royal mining jurisdiction, and of the *Kammer-graf;* containing nearly 6000 houses, and having a mining college; excellent mineral water at Szalatny; fine tobacco at Kospallag; various minerals.

10. *Komorner Comitat.*—Extent, 53 square miles. Mountain, Vertes. River, Danube. Produce, wheat, wine, fruit. Contains 1 royal free town, 5 market towns, 85 villages, 71 prædia. Place of assembly, Komorn, a royal free town, with 9283 inhabitants. Population of the

whole comitatus, 98,760. Remarkable objects, Dotis, and its natural curiosities; petrifactions; red and blue marble; casks which contain 600 eimers; the celebrated wine of Neszmely.

11. *Neograder Comitat.*—Extent, 77 square miles. Mountain, Karants. River, Ipoly. Produce, rye, hemp, melons. Contains 10 market towns, 251 villages, 145 prædia. Place of assembly, Balassa Gyarmath, a market town, with 4286 inhabitants. Population of the whole comitatus, 162,094. The northern part of this comitatus is somewhat wild, but the south, about the hills of Cserhat, very fruitful, yielding grain, wine, and fruit, particularly water melons, in great abundance.

12. *Pesther Comitat.*—This, together with *Pilis* and *Solt*, contains 191 square miles. Mountains, Naszaly, Blocksberg. River, Danube. Produce, grain, cattle, horses, red Ofen wine. Contains 2 royal free towns, 20 market towns, 165 villages, 154 prædia. Place of assembly, Pesth, a royal free town, with a population of 41,882. Population of the whole comitatus, 310,651. Remarkable objects, Pesth, the first commercial town in Hungary, the residence of the high court of appeals, of the *Septemviral tafel* and the *Konigliche tafel;* the university, national museum, theatre, bridge over the Danube; Ofen, the residence of the Palatine, the royal government, and the treasury; red Ofen wine, to the amount of 250,000 eimers; hot-springs; at Waitzen are the Louisa academy, and the deaf and dumb institution; the Ketskemet common, 12 miles long.

Jazygiener Comitat.—Extent, 17 square miles. No mountains. River, Zagyva. Produce, cattle, grain. Contains 3 market towns, 8 villages, 6 prædia. Place of assembly, Jasz-Bereny, a market town, with 12,088 inhabitants. Population of the whole comitatus, 43,043; flourishing by agriculture and the breeding of cattle and horses. The Palatine is the supreme governor of this district and the Jazygiener and Cumanier comitatus. Sandy plains.

Little Cumanier Comitat.—Extent, 47 square miles. No mountains. Soda lake. Produce, cattle, grain. Contains 3 market towns, 5 villages, 27 prædia. Place of assembly, Felegyhaza, with 9105 inhabitants. Population of the whole comitatus, 41,346. Dung of cattle used as fuel, from the want of wood. Many large water melons.

13. *Batsch and Bodrogher Comitat.*—Extent, 170 square miles. No mountains. Rivers, Danube, Theiss. Produce, wheat, wine, fish, cattle, tobacco. Contains 3 royal free towns, 9 market towns, 98 villages, 91 prædia. Place of assembly, Baja, a market town, with 4896 inhabitants. Population of the whole comitatus, 248,872. Remarkable objects, Emperor Francis's canal, 13½ miles long, or 62 English ; Maria Theresia Stadt, with the extensive Palitser lake ; Roman fortification ; Neusatz, a royal free town, not yet one hundred years founded, great and flourishing through toleration and industry.

Tschaikistener Comitat, or Pontoneer District.—Extent, 35 square miles. No mountains. River, Theiss. Produce, fish, grain. Contains 15 villages, 11 prædia. Place of assembly, Titul, a market town. Population of the whole comitatus, 21,265. Titul, at the junction of the Theiss with the Danube, is the head-quarters of the Pontoneers, or Sailor corps, consisting of five companies.

Second District.

14. *Wieselburger Comitat.*—Extent, 35 square miles. No mountains. River, Danube. Produce, wheat, hay. Contains 12 market towns, 38 villages, 8 prædia. Place of assembly, Wieselburg, a market town, with 2426 inhabitants. Population of the whole comitatus, 54,026. Remarkable objects, the Hansag, a trembling marsh of three miles wide, whose surface is covered with earth, living roots, and plants.

15. *Œdenburger Comitat.*—Extent, 57 square miles. A market town. Mountain, Schlag. Neusiedler lake. Produce, rye, wine, fruit. Contains 3 royal free towns, 36 market towns, 202 villages, 6 prædia. Place of assembly, Ædenburg, a royal free town, with 12,422 inhabitants. Population of the whole comitatus, 148,156. Remarkable objects, Neusiedler lake, 10 miles in circumference, (46 English ;) extensive coal bed at Brennberg ; the only sugar refinery in Hungary ; good wine at Rusth.

16. *Eisenburg Comitat.*—Extent, 96 square miles. Mountain, Sag. River, Raab. Produce, wine, fruit, swine. Contains 1 royal free town, 38 market towns, 612 villages, 57 prædia. Place of assembly, Stein-am-Anger, with 2167 inhabitants. Population of the whole comitatus, 294,125.

Districtual court at Güns ; sulphur pits at Bernstein ; an acidulous spring at Tatzmannsdorf.

17. *Szalader Comitat.*—Extent, 100 square miles. Mountain, Badastony. Balaton lake. Produce, wheat, fish, wine. Contains 22 market towns, 598 villages, 125 prædia. Place of assembly, Egerszek, a market town, with 3044 inhabitants. Population of the whole comitatus, 222,652. Remarkable objects, beautiful peninsula of Tihany on the Balaton lake ; acidulous spring of Fured ; celebrated Georgicon at Kesthely ; the sweet wine of Czakaturn in the Muraköz.

18. *Weszprimer Comitat.*—Extent, 74 square miles. Mountain, Bakony. Balaton lake. Produce, grain, wine, swine. Contains 9 market towns, 122 villages, 181 prædia. Place of assembly, Weszprim, a bishoprick, with 4521 inhabitants. Population of the whole comitatus, 142,384. Remarkable objects, the wine of Somlyau, and the swine, of which 100,000 are kept in the forest of Bakony ; a reformed gymnasium at Papa.

19. *Raaber Comitat.*—Extent, 28 square miles. Mountain, Sokoro. River, Danube. Produce, grain, wine. Contains 1 royal free town, 2 market towns, 82 villages, 39 prædia. Place of assembly, Raab, a royal free town, with a population of 10,788. Population of the whole comitatus, 62,077. Remarkable objects, Raab, formerly a celebrated fortress ; a royal academy ; Martonsberg, the oldest and richest arch-abbey, with its curious relics.

20. *Graner Comitat.*—Extent, 19 square miles. Mountain, Arpas. River, Danube. Produce, wine, rye. Contains 1 royal free town, 5 market towns, 45 villages, 8 prædia. Place of assembly, Gran, a royal free town, with 5445 inhabitants. Population of the whole comitatus, 41,294. Gran, the birth-place of King Stephan, who founded this archbishoprick ; junction of the Gran with the Danube.

21. *Stuhl-Weissenburg Comitat.*—Extent, 75 square miles. Mountain, Csoka. River, Sarvitz. Produce, wheat, wine. Contains 1 royal free town, 12 market towns, 65 villages, 222 prædia. Place of assembly, Weissenburg, with 12,365 inhabitants. Population of the whole comitatus, 104,790. Remarkable objects, many lakes and morasses ; the Sarvitz canal ; Stuhl-Weissenburg, formerly the coronation town.

22. *Tolnaer Comitat.*—Extent, 65 square miles. Mountain, Bajat. River, Sarvitz. Produce, tobacco, wine. Contains 17 market towns, 88 villages, 101 prædia. Place of assembly, Szexard, a market town, with 3412 inhabitants. Population of the whole comitatus, 145,271. Remarkable objects, sturgeon fishery at Földvar and Tolna; the red wine of Szexard; cultivation of tobacco and saffron; preparation of potash; the beautiful peninsula of Sarkösz.

23. *Schümegher Comitat.*—Extent, 114 square miles. Mountain, Fonyod. River, Drave. Produce, wine, cattle, fruit. Contains 23 market towns, 292 villages, 278 prædia. Place of assembly, Koposvar, a market town, with 2324 inhabitants. Population of the whole comitatus, 168,602. The Balaton lake yields the most delicate fish called *Fogas.*

24. *Baranyaer Comitat.*—Extent, 91 square miles. Mountain, Mesteto. River, Danube. Produce, wine, fruit, fish. Contains 1 royal free town, 10 market towns, 328 villages, 71 prædia. Place of assembly, Fünfkirchen, a royal free town, with 8487 inhabitants. Population of the whole comitatus, 148,681. This comitatus vies with any in the country in beauty and fertility. Fünfkirchen was first made a royal free town in 1789.

Third District.

25. *Zipser Comitat.*—Extent, 66 square miles. Mountain, Carpathian. Rivers, Poprad, Sölnitz. Produce, barley, flax, peas, metals, copper, iron. Contains 2 royal free towns, 22 market towns, 178 villages, 68 prædia. Place of assembly, Leutscau, a royal free town, with 4445 inhabitants. Population of the whole comitatus, 109,949. Zips has, both in arts and literature, many able men. After the mines, linen is the great riches of the Zips, of which it yields annually six million ells. Remarkable objects, many mineral springs, of which New Lublau is the first; an evangelical lyceum at Käsmark; great wine trade; the mead and peas of Leutchau; Catholic and evangelical gymnasium; Schmölnitz, with a mint and supreme court; copper water; Gölnitz, with its copper mines.

The Sixteen Towns.—Mountain, Konigsberg. River, Hernath. Produce, barley, flax, metals. Place of assembly, Iglo, with 5252 inhabi-

tants. Population of the 16 towns, 42,347. The 16 towns are under the jurisdiction of their Grafs and an administrator, whose residence is at Iglo, where there are also rich copper mines.

26. *Saroser Comitat.*—Extent, 65 square miles. Mountains, Simonka, Oblik. Rivers, Tartza, Szekcso. Produce, salt, fruit, rye, millet, oats, hemp, and opal. Contains 3 royal free towns, 12 market towns, 376 villages, 13 prædia. Place of assembly, Eperies, a royal free town, with 7426 inhabitants. Population of the whole comitatus, 141,745. Remarkable objects, 72 mineral springs, of which Bartfeld and Lipotz are the principal; a well-conducted salt-work at Sovar; opal mine at Cservenitz, unrivalled in the world; Eperies, with its beautiful situation and neighbourhood, where there is also the districtual court and the evangelical college for the district; there is here the greatest market for the linen; the fruit of Zeben is excellent.

27. *Zempliner Comitat.*—Extent, 108 square miles. Mountain, Tokay. River, Bodrogh. Produce, wine, rye, hemp, fish. Contains 24 market towns, 428 villages, 76 prædia. Place of assembly, Ujhely, a market town, with 6327 inhabitants. Population of the whole comitatus, 230,491. Remarkable objects, Hegyalya, which is a wine district of above 30 English miles in length, where the celebrated Tokay Ausbruch is made; at St Patak is a reformed college; at Kelster an acidulous spring.

28. *Abaujvarer Comitat.*—Extent, 52 square miles. Mountains, Feketehegy, Regetz. River, Hernath. Produce, grain, wine, fruit. Contains 1 royal free town, 10 market towns, 277 villages, 40 prædia. Place of assembly, Kaschau, a royal free town, with 8647 inhabitants. Population of the whole comitatus, 123,938. Remarkable objects, Telky-Banya, celebrated in the 16th century for its rich gold mines, now worthy of notice from the beautiful yellow semi-opal; here is a royal academy, a bishop's see, and a royal treasury office; the acidulous spring of Ranker, a few miles from Kaschau; Jaszo, with a beautiful marble quarry.

29. *Unghvarer Comitat.*—Extent, 59 square miles. Mountain, Beszked. River, Ungh. Produce, wine, oats, hemp. Contains 5 market towns, 203 villages, 15 prædia. Place of assembly, Unghvar, a market town, with 4967 inhabitants. Population of the whole comitatus, 79,041.

Remarkable objects, Unghvar, residence of the bishop of Munkats; sulphureous baths at Szobrantz; wine of Szeredny; iron hammers.

30. *Beregher Comitat.*—Extent, 67 square miles. Mountain, Berzava. River, Latortza. Produce, wine, hemp, fruit, maize. Contains 7 market towns, 261 villages, 7 prædia. Place of assembly, Bereghszasz, a market town, with 4226 inhabitants. Population of the whole comitatus, 82,447. Remarkable objects, the castle of Munkats, a state prison, on an insulated rock; alum work; alum stone at Nagy-Begany; a beautiful monastery in the mountain Csernek.

31. *Tornaer Comitat.*—Extent, 10 square miles. Mountain, Szoros-Kö. River, Bodva. Produce, cattle, wine. Contains 1 market town, 41 villages, 12 prædia. Place of assembly, Torna, a market town, with 1223 inhabitants. Population of the whole comitatus, 19,817. The smallest comitatus in Hungary; remarkable for the caves at Szilitz and Szadelö; good fruit and wine at Körtvelyes, Almas, and Görgö.

32. *Gömörer, united with Kis Honth Comitat.*—Extent, 76 square miles. Mountains, Ochsenberg, Szinetz. Rivers, Sajo, Gran, Rima. Produce, iron, sheep, poppies. Contains 13 market towns, 260 villages, 97 prædia. Places of assembly, Pelsotz, a market town, and Rimaszomb, a market town, with respective populations of 2102 and 3138. Population of the whole comitatus, 144,132, united, since 1802, with Kis Honth. The best iron in the country. Many different minerals and fossils. The cavern at Agtelek is celebrated. Except at Theissholtz, magnetic ironstone is no where found in Hungary. The bread of Rima, Szombath, and Miskolz, is much celebrated.

33. *Borsorder Comitat.*—Extent, 65 square miles. Mountain, Osztra. Produce, wheat, wine. Contains 12 market towns, 167 villages, 71 prædia. Place of assembly, Miskolz, a market town, the population of which is 13,556. Population of the whole comitatus, 137,340. Rich in all natural products. Remarkable objects, iron forges and furnaces at Dios-Györ; roof slates at Bisnyo; warm-bath at Tapoltza.

34. *Heves Szolnoker Comitat.*—Extent, 120 square miles. River, Theiss. Produce, wine, wheat, tobacco. Contains 15 market towns, 131 villages, 105 prædia. Place of assembly, Erlau, a bishop's residence, with 16,112 inhabitants. Population of the whole comitatus, 178,475,

together with Szolnok. Remarkable objects, Erlau, the residence of an archbishop; red wine of Erlau; warm-baths; tobacco of Debrö; alum work at Parad.

Great Cumanien.—Extent, 20 square miles. No mountains. River, Theiss. Produce, wheat, maize, tobacco. Contains 1 market town, 5 villages, 19 prædia. Place of assembly, Kartzag, with 8436 inhabitants. Population of the whole comitatus, 32,624. Remarkable objects, a great many melons and tortoises; fish very cheap; the devil's hole, (ördögarok,) near Kün Sz. Marton; a great deficiency in wood.

35. *Csongrader Comitat.*—Extent, 62 square miles. No mountains. River, Theiss. Produce, cattle, tobacco. Contains 1 royal free town, 3 market towns, 6 villages, 52 prædia. Place of assembly, Szegedin, a royal free town, with 25,692 inhabitants. Population of the whole comitatus, 64,217; besides Szegedin, there are but 9 towns and villages, 15 lakes of different sizes; good tobacco; much cattle; large melons; a workhouse at Szegedin.

Fourth District.

36. *Marmaroser Comitat.*—Extent, 178 square miles. Mountain, Pietrosz. River, Theiss. Produce, salt, wood, maize, game. Contains 5 market towns, 157 villages, 1 prædium. Place of assembly, Sziget, a market town, with 6455 inhabitants. Population of the whole comitatus, 109,983. Remarkable objects, Sziget, a coronation town; residence of the administration of revenue; rich salt-work pits at Rhonaszek, Sugatagh, Szlatina, Kerekhegy, and N. Bocska.

37. *Ugotscaer Comitat.*—Extent, 22 square miles. Mountain, Feketehegy. River, Theiss. Produce, swine, wood, fish. Contains 3 market towns, 63 villages, 3 prædia. Place of assembly at Nagy-Szölös, with a population of 2144. Population of the whole comitatus, 34,392. Remarkable objects, the ruins of seven castles; silver mines at Nagy-Tarna; many marshes and swamps.

38. *Szathmarer Comitat.*—Extent, 106 square miles. Mountain, Feketehegy. River, Szamos. Produce, wheat, maize. Contains 2 royal free towns, 19 market towns, 245 villages, 18 prædia. Place of assembly,

Nagy-Karoly, with 7567 inhabitants. Population of the whole comitatus, 159,285. Remarkable objects, the beautiful mountains about Nagy-Banya, covered with vineyards and flourishing chestnut forests; court of coining and mines; the marsh of Etseder, six miles in length.

39. *Szaboltser Comitat.*—Extent, 115 square miles. No mountains. Sandy plains. Soda lakes. Produce, rye, tobacco, melons. Contains 14 market towns, 192 villages, 51 prædia. Place of assembly, Nagy-Kalo, a market town, with 3132 inhabitants. Population of the whole comitatus, 229,676. Remarkable objects, the soda lakes at Bertzel, Fejerto, Halaszy, Sz. Mihaly, Sinye, and Sima; saltpetre works at Nagy-Kalo and Nyir; celebrated tobacco of Margita.

Haiduken-Städte, or Haiduk towns.—Extent, 17 square miles. No mountains. Produce, rye, tobacco, cattle. Contains 6 market towns, 4 prædia. Population of all the Haiduk towns, 24,292. The six Haiduk towns, Nanas, Dorog, Hathaz, Vamos-Perts, Böszörmeny, and Szoboszlo, enjoy peculiar privileges and immunities.

40. *Biharer Comitat.*—Extent, 200 square miles. Mountains, Biharihegy, Czaf. Rivers, Beretyo, Körös. Produce, wheat, wine, fruit, tobacco, swine, cattle, copper. Contains 1 royal free town, 19 market towns, 464 villages, 169 prædia. Place of assembly, Grosswardein, a bishop's residence, and Debretzin, a royal free town, with 8765 and 38,962 inhabitants respectively. Population of the whole comitatus, 396,037. This is, beyond a doubt, the largest and most fruitful comitatus in Hungary, having every thing in abundance. Debretzin, after Pesth, is the chief town of trade, with four great fairs; a districtual court; an academy and reformed college; saltpetre manufactory. Debretzin is celebrated for its bread, its soap, and its common tobacco-pipes, of which 11,000,000 are annually made; extensive plains; hot-springs near Grosswardein; cavern of Funatza; mountains of Rezbania.

41. *Bekeser Comitat.*—Extent, 65 square miles. No mountains. River, Körös. Produce, wheat, cattle. Contains 4 market towns, 16 villages, 71 prædia. Place of assembly, Gyula, a market town, with 4236 inhabitants. The population of the whole comitatus, 93,411. Rich in bread, cattle, fish, game, and large water melons; from the want of wood, they use reeds and cow-dung.

42. *Arader Comitat.*—Extent, 108 square miles. Mountain, Kladova. River, Maros. Produce, wheat, wine, maize. Contains 17 market towns, 174 villages, 24 prædia. Place of assembly, Boros-Jenö, a market town, with 3877 inhabitants. Population of the whole comitatus, 185,173. The mountain chains of Kladova, Paulis, Menes, Gyorok, and Kovaszints, yield the delicate red aromatic Meneser wine.

43. *Szanader Comitat.*—Extent, 29 square miles. No mountains. River, Maros. Produce, cattle, wheat. Contains 2 market towns, 7 villages, 30 prædia. Place of assembly, Mako, a market town, with 6477 inhabitants. Population of the whole comitatus, 34,641. Remarkable objects, the breeding stud established at Mezöhegyes in 1783, upon four commons, containing 42,000 joch, employing above 500 men.

44. *Torontaler Comitat.*—Extent, 132 square miles. No mountains. River, Bega. Produce, horses, rice. Contains 7 market towns, 115 villages, 52 prædia. Place of assembly, Gross-Betskerek, with 2171 inhabitants. Population of the whole comitatus, 207,878. Thinly peopled; the marshes occupy 31 square miles; rich pastures; breeding of horses and cattle to a large extent; large rice plantations at Uj-Betse.

45. *Temeser Comitat.*—Extent, 116 square miles. No mountains. River, Temes. Bega canal. Produce, rice, wine, grain, swine, game, silk. Contains 1 royal free town, 6 market towns, 180 villages, 3 prædia. Place of assembly, Temeswar, a royal free town, with 11,098 inhabitants. Population of the whole comitatus, 235,375. Fertile, but, on account of the marshes, unhealthy. Large rice plantations at Gattai, Detta, Denta, Omor, and Csebza. Schöndorf and Charlottenburg, two new and regularly built villages. The Bega canal passes through this comitatus. Temeswar, after Pesth, the handsomest town in Hungary, the residence of the administration of revenue; of the bishop of the non-united Greek church; of the chapter of Csanad; and of the commandant general.

46. *Krassoer Comitat.*—Extent, 103 square miles. Mountain, Szemenik. River, Berzava. Produce, maize and metals. Contains 8 market towns, 222 villages, 10 prædia. Place of assembly, Lugos, a market town, with 4587 inhabitants. Population of the whole comitatus, 189,313. The Bega canal begins at Lugos, and extends to the Theiss,

through the whole Banat. At Oravitza is a districtual court of mining; at Szasska and Dognatska are copper mines.

Croatia.

47. *Varasdiner Comitat.*—Extent, 34 square miles. Mountain, Ivanchicza. River, Drave. Produce, tobacco, maize, swine. Contains 1 royal free town, 5 market towns, 554 villages, 4 prædia. Place of assembly, Varasdin, a royal free town, with 4436 inhabitants. Population of the whole comitatus, 99,236. Varasdin lies on a plain, with warm-baths. Remarkable objects, at Radoboi, a large sulphur bed, in which the sulphur often comes pure in balls and veins.

48. *Creutzer Comitat.*—Extent, 30 square miles. Mountain, Kalnik. River, Drave. Produce, wine and tobacco. Contains 2 royal free towns, 2 market towns, 294 villages, 2 prædia. Place of assembly, Creutz, a royal free town, with 1819 inhabitants. Population of the whole comitatus, 75,532. Creutz is a bishoprick of the Greek non-united church; Kaprontza is a royal free town, as also Pelovar, Rakovetz, Ivanitsch, and Tzirkvina.

49. *Agramer Comitat.*—Extent, 108 square miles. Mountain, Waldgebirg. River, Szave. Produce, grain, tobacco, timber. Contains 1 royal free town, 186 villages. Place of assembly, Agram, royal free town, with 17,266 inhabitants. Population of the whole comitatus, 183,968. Agram, the capital of Croatia; the residence of the Ban; of a Catholic bishop; of the commandant general; of an academy; and of the districtual court of justice.

Slavonia.

50. *Veröczer Comitat.*—Extent, 83 square miles. No mountain. River, Drave. Produce, grain, cattle. Contains 8 market towns, 238 villages, 6 prædia. Place of assembly, Eszek, a royal free town, with 9231 inhabitants. Population of the whole comitatus, 131,104. Veröczer comitatus lies between the Drave and the Szave. Eszek was the last town to which the privileges of a royal free town were granted, A.D. 1806. A handsome bridge over the Drave.

51. *Posegaer Comitat.*—Extent, 45 square miles. Mountain, Papuk. River, Szave. Produce, cattle, tobacco. Contains 1 royal free town, 6 market towns, 234 villages, 1 prædium. Town of assembly, Posega, a royal free town, with 4112 inhabitants. The population of the whole comitatus, 66,118. Remarkable objects, culture of tobacco flourishes greatly at Posega, and is equal in quality to that of Hungary; Little Walachia the place of abode of the Morlachen; warm-springs.

52. *Sirmiener Comitat.*—Extent, 43 square miles. Mountain, Carlovicz. River, Danube. Produce, wine, wheat, maize, swine. It contains 7 market towns, 82 villages, 12 prædia. Place of assembly, Bukovar, a market town, with 5669 inhabitants. Population of the whole comitatus, 90,680. Sirmien is the most fruitful part of Slavonia, and yields annually of wheat and other grain 902,895 metzen, 720,000 metzen of maize; feeds yearly above 50,000 swine. Sweet wine made at Carlovitz. Culture of silk flourishes greatly.

Royal Free Towns and their Population.

Tyrnau 5083; Sz. Georgen 2227; Pösingen 3703; Modern 4619; Skalitz 5698; Trenchin 2131; Kremnitz 9678; Uj Banya 3772; Breznobanya 6305; Lebethbanya 1343; Altsohl 1506; Karpen 2926; Schemnitz with Bela Banya 17,207; Baka Banya 2368; Ofen 22,527; Theriscopol 21,753; Zombor 15,106; Neusatz 13,395; Eisenstadt 2373; Rusth 1006; Güns 4839; Käsmark 4322; Bartfeld 4008; Zeben 2123; Szathmar-Nemethi 10,382; Nagy Banya 4227; Kaprontza 3158.

Bishops' Residence Towns and their Population.

Calotsa archbishoprick 4016; Gran archbishoprick; Erlau archbishoprick; Fünfkirchen, Weszprim, Waitzen 5127; Raab, Neutra, Neusohl, Stein-am-Anger, Stuhlweissenburg, Grosswardein 6978; Zips, the chapter consists of 412; Rosenau 4935; Kaschau Szathmar.

Larger Market Towns and their Population.

Ketskemet 24,862; Miskoltz, Nagy-Körös 12,124; Jasz-Bereny, Meava 10,231; Felegyhaza, Nyiregyhaz 8066; Szarvas 7815.

HUNGARY, REDUCED FROM THE LARGE MAP OF LIPSZKY.

Published by Archibald Constable & Co. Edinburgh 1817

HUNGARY, TRANSYLVANIA, AND THE SURROUNDING COUNTRIES.

STATISTICAL ACCOUNT

OF

THE MINES OF HUNGARY,

Extracted from the Vaterländische Blätter, A. D. 1811, *and the Bergmännische Reise von W. G. E. Becker,* 1815. (*Page* 183.)

THE kingdom of Hungary is divided, as relates to its mines, into four mining districts; 1*st*, Lower Hungary; 2*d*, Upper Hungary and Schmölnitz; 3*d*, Nagy-Banya; 4*th*, Banat.

I. *The Mining District of Lower Hungary.*

This is under the supreme direction of the office of the Oberst Kammer Graf at Schemnitz, subservient to which are the administration of mines and smelting at Kremnitz,—the mint of Kremnitz,—the administration of revenue at Neusohl,—the administration of Herrengrund,—and the administration of the iron forges of Rhonitz. To this district also belong the seven royal free mining towns, Kremnitz, Schemnitz, Neusohl, Belo-Banya, Baka-Banya, Uj-Banya, and Libetho-Banya. But, as we have already seen the operation of Schemnitz and Kremnitz, they may here be passed in silence; and we may proceed to mention some other mines included in the same district.

At Uj-Banya, the *Althandler* gold and silver mines flourished greatly during the 14th, 15th, and 16th centuries; but, being unable to keep the lower workings free from water, they were obliged to desert it, not, however, till they had called in the assistance of two English engineers, who constructed a steam-engine, in 1709, but in vain. Another of these

engines was afterward erected at Hodritsch. The *Francisci-schacht* was worked here with advantage in the end of the 18th century, and as in this the machines for raising water are powerful, and the mine is already sunk thirty klafters below the main adit, they have commenced forming a communication between this mine and the *Althandler*, with the view of drawing off the water. Besides these two, which are chiefly royal mines, there is another at Uj-Banya, belonging to a mining company, called the *Francisci-Theresia Grube*, which has yielded much ore, remarkably rich in gold; this, however, is now become less profitable. On the banks of the Gran, opposite to Uj-Banya, there are three or four other mines, chiefly royal, which, however, owing to the expence of working, have been nearly relinquished.

At Baka-Banya, in the last century, the gold and silver mines named the *Johann Baptista* and *Nicolai Stollen*, were worked by private companies. They did not, however, succeed, and the government took them partly into its hands, without any considerable success.

The ancient royal mines of silver bearing copper at Herrengrund are much more worthy of remark. They have been worked during many centuries, generally by some nobleman who has held them under the crown, to which they have now reverted.

The chief mines are the *Maximiliani* and *Ferdinandi-schacht*, and the *Pfeiffer Stollen*. The former yield copper pyrites rich in silver, and simple copper pyrites; the latter also yields the same, but is less rich in silver. Owing to the decomposition of the pyrites by the water from the surface, the products denominated the *cement-water* and the *green-colour water* are formed. The cement-water holds the copper, in combination with sulphuric acid, in solution, and, being conducted through channels in which pieces of iron are placed for the purpose, deposits its copper, either in the form of a coating on the iron, which is termed cement-copper, or in the form of a precipitate at the bottom of the channel. Every fortnight the iron is either turned or cleared from its coating, in order to present a new surface; and every month the precipitate is let out and laid by for the processes of the furnace. This precipitate yields fifty or seventy pfunds of pure copper in the centner; and the firm coating, to which the name of *cement-copper* is more peculiarly applicable, yields ninety pfunds;

and the whole quantity of copper thus annually collected amounts to about 50 centners.

The green-colour water likewise contains an oxyde of copper, combined with sulphuric acid, and mingled with more or less calcareous matter. This is collected in large cisterns, and, by exposure to the air, the oxyde of copper, united with some calcareous particles, falls to the ground, or settles on the rough sides of the cistern, forming the colour called mineral-green, which is of a lighter or a darker shade, in proportion as it contains a greater or smaller quantity of the lime. There are two mines which yield this substance; that which belongs to the crown gives annually 100 centners; that which belongs to the town of Neusohl only 20 centners. The annual produce in copper and silver in these mines, which, in the last century, as long as they worked in the rich veins, and at a moderate depth, was very great, is now reduced, at most, to 1200 or 1500 centners of copper, and 500 or 600 marks of silver.

Amongst the remarkable objects at Herrengrund is the canal of above 4 miles (or 18 English) in length, for conducting water from Liptau to the high ground of Herrengrund, for the purpose of working the machine, employed in raising water from the mines, and a tunnel of 300 klafters long, passing through a mountain, which serves as a road for foot-passengers, between Herrengrund and Altgebirg.

The great depth of the Herrengrund copper mines, their extent, and the difficulty of raising the water, rendered it necessary, in the latter half of the last century, to drive a water level to connect it with that of Ratzengrund, which has already (1811) extended to 1000 klafters; but 570 klafters still remain before the *Ferdinandi-schacht* will derive the benefit; and the work is now carried on by 16 labourers day and night. In this work they have come upon some rich veins, and, in a collateral gallery of 470 klafters, which they cut between the shafts for admitting air into the *Theresia* and the *Francisci* mines, they have opened several veins of mixed copper and silver ore, which promises very well for the future. By carrying on these galleries towards the north, it is intended to draw the water from some other ancient and very rich workings which have been relinquished for many years.

Libetho-Banya has latterly been a scene of some activity. Amongst its

most remarkable mines are those of *Antoni* and *Maria Empfängniss-Stollen*, chiefly consisting of ores of copper, without silver, and yielding *cement-water;* but the chief is the newly opened *Ladislai Stollen*, which was deserted between the 13th and 14th centuries, where they have discovered a very rich vein of three klafters in width, containing many peculiar ores of copper; and, from its apparent extent, holding out great expectation. Besides these, there are a multiplicity of inferior works in this district; and, independently of the gold, silver, copper, and lead mines, there are others worked upon the *Great* and *Small Kapler* mountains, in Leptau comitatus, which yield antimonial gold ores, of very considerable value.

The copper ores, whether they contain silver or do not, are smelted at Altgebirg, and the black copper is thence transported to the royal refining furnaces at Tajova, where the silver is obtained from the copper by means of lead and other processes of refining. That copper, however, which contains no silver, is mixed with an equal part, or with one-third of the copper obtained in the process of separation, which still contains some lead, and put into a furnace, where, by the application of a strong blast heat, it is comminuted, or, by means of scorification, and the separation of those foreign matters which render it brittle, completely purified; and, for the farther operations, sent to the royal copper forges at Neusohl to be formed into plates or bars.

The mines most productive of silver in Lower Hungary belong to the crown. The others, which are worked by individuals, yield about one-third, or, at most, not above half the quantity of silver. In this district there are yearly from 1500 to 1800 marks of gold obtained, and from 60,000 to 80,000 marks of silver. In 12 years, from 1778 to 1789, there were 48,000,000, and between 300,000 and 400,000 florins, in gold and silver, coined at Kremnitz, besides which, 1500 marks of fine silver, and 11½ marks of fine gold, were sent monthly to Vienna for the use of the manufacturers in these articles. Besides this, 10,000 or 12,000 centners of lead are annually procured; 3000 centners of copper, containing silver; 1200 centners of copper, without silver; from 36,000 to 38,000 centners of forged iron; 1200 or 1500 centners of steel; from 1000 to 1200 centners of cast iron; from 1500 to 2000 centners of antimony; from

80 to 100 centners of auripigment; from 100 to 150 centners of cement-copper; from 40 to 50 centners of mineral-green.

The whole number employed in the royal mines, forges, and works, amounts to 10,000 or 12,000, which, including the workmen in the private mines, will be increased to 18,000 or 20,000, and, reckoning the whole families, from 48,000 to 50,000 are found within the jurisdiction of this mining district.

To the district of Schemnitz and Kremnitz belong, as indispensable assistants to the conduct of the mines, the estates of Revistye and Saxenstein, and others belong to Neusohl, the peasantry upon which, instead of the usual work exacted by their lords, are employed in the mines at a much lower rate of wages than is required by the peasantry of other landlords, so that the working of the mines may not depend upon the precarious will of the workmen or their private lords. For the use of the royal silver, lead, and copper works, for the forges, the underground work, and the private consumption of the mining towns and the officers, not only the great forests belonging to the towns are reserved, but likewise the forests on the above mentioned estates, and those which belong to the royal free town of Brezno-Banya, following the bank of the Gran from 15 to 18 miles, (above 70 English,) and extending three miles in depth on each side of that river.

II. *The Upper Hungarian Schmölnitz District.*

To this district belong all the mines, furnaces, and forges, in the Zipser, Gömörer, Torner, Abaujvarer, Saroscher, Zempliner, and Borschoder comitatus. The greater part of these are in the *Zips*, and the chief places in which mining is conducted are Schmölnitz, Schwedler, Gölnitz, Krombach, Slowinka, Poracz, Wagendrüssl, Sawatka, and Neudorf or Iglo. The chief produce of this district is copper, either containing silver or not, and *cement-copper*. Formerly, the copper mines of Spitzenberg and Rottenberg, at Schmölnitz, were the richest, but for the last sixty years, the mines on the Slowinker chain of mountains, towards Gölnitz and Poracz, are the most remarkable for their mines.

In the *Gömörer* comitatus, at Bethler, Szulow, and Csetnek, both iron

and copper are obtained, at Nana quicksilver, at Dobschau and Sirk, iron, and in the district about Rosenau, and in the mountain of Schmölnitz, antimony. Besides this, there are in the Gömörer comitatus iron-furnaces and forges, amongst which, those of Rothenstein and Bohorel, belonging to Graf Kohary, that at Theissholtz, belonging to the crown, and those of Murany and Nyustya, are the principal.

In *Zips* there are likewise some iron works, amongst which, those in the neighbourhood of Iglo, and the royal works at Jakobau and Kronbach, are the most extensive. In the *Abaujvarer* comitatus, those of Kaschau and Joszau are the chief. Those in the *Saroscher* comitatus, at Jaworin, and those in the *Zempliner* and *Borschoder* comitatus, are of less importance. The royal iron-work, however, at Diosgyör, in the Borschoder comitatus, deserves particular mention, as yielding the best iron in Hungary, and the best ordinary and fine steel, from which English watch-springs and plates are manufactured; here also various kinds of files and rasps are made, not by machinery, as at Rohnitz in Lower Hungary, but by hand.

In addition to the above mentioned minerals, cobalt is found in the neighbourhood of Iglo and Rosenau, which is employed for manufacturing smalt, in the Royal Smalt Manufactory at Schwarza, near Glochnitz, in the province under the Enns. This rare mineral, which was formerly only found in Bohemia, and since, chiefly at Schneeberg in Saxony, and in Saalfeld, and also in Norway, has lately been discovered at Aranyidka, in the Abaujvarer, and at Bruszno, in the Neusohler comitatus; at Parad, in the Hevescher comitatus, are two considerable alum manufactories; at Sóvár, near Eperies, is an extensive salt-work, and not far distant is a mine of lead, rich in copper.

On the borders of the Saroscher and Abaujvarer comitatus is the celebrated opal mine, belonging to the royal estate of Peklin, at the village of Czerweniza, but let out to private speculators at a low rent.

Connected with this mining district, there are royal smelting works at Schmölnitz, Altwasser, Opack, Strazen, and Aranziha, to which all the ores of silver and copper must be brought, when the government pays at a certain rate the metal produced, and levies the appointed duties. The annual produce of this district amounts from 22,000 to 25,000 centners

of copper, and in some years has amounted to 30,000 centners. The quantity of silver obtained is from 3000 to 4000 marks.

III. *District of Nagy-Banya.*

The third mining district of Hungary is that of Nagy-Banya, with its own officers of inspection and jurisdiction. The court is held at Nagy-Banya, and the chief mining places are Nagy-Banya, Felsö-Banya, Lapos-Banya, Olla-Lapos, and Bajuz; to this district also belongs the copper, silver, gold, and lead mine, at Borso-Banya, on the borders of the Marmarosch comitatus, and Bukowina.

In this district many gold mines are worked, which, however, are inconsiderable; but the Kreutzberg gold mine, near the town, appears, from the dimensions of the vein, which was worked quite to the surface, and to an unexplored depth, to have been most productive some centuries ago. Within the last sixty years attempts have been making to clear these workings of their water, and to pursue the great vein again, and the ore which has been obtained has been very rich in gold, consisting of a finer quartz basis, and yielding, in each mark of silver, from 10 to 120 and 130 dwt. of gold.

Another mine of great ancient extent is that of Fekete-Banya, which has likewise, within a few years, been worked both by government and by private individuals with some success. In the neighbourhood of Nagy-Banya are also the mines named *Antoni-Georgi* and *Emerici-Stollen;* the gold, silver, and copper mines of Illoba and Sarga Banya, and those of Miss-Banya and Füriza.

The second principal mining place in this district is Felsö-Banya, where, upon the Grossgrubner mountain, several mines are worked for gold, silver, lead, and copper, both by government and mining companies, and in these native silver frequently presents itself. At Felsö-Banya, there is a royal mining office, which serves as an auxiliary court for questions of right, and directs under the head court at Nagy-Banya, all the local royal works. The ores are smelted on the spot, and the metals sent to Nagy-Banya.

Kapnik is another inferior mining district within that of Nagy-Banya,

and the chief mines are at Kapnik itself. But the *Rothaer-grub*, at no great distance, is the richest, as regards gold, which is here often obtained in its native state.

The Olla-Lapos mining and smelting office is also within the jurisdiction of Nagy-Banya, and consists chiefly of the works at Bajutz, and the forges and iron smelting furnaces of Olla-Lapos. In the same neighbourhood, ores, containing gold, silver, and lead, are worked on the hills of Totos and Busfalva; and as in these veins much blende is found, a zinc furnace has been established at Bajutz, and another is worked at Ober-Fernesee, with a view of supplying the zinc necessary for the brass manufactories, without being indebted for it to foreign countries.

The royal mines and furnaces at Borsa-Banya, in the Marmaros comitatus, likewise belong to this district. Here, within the last twenty years, an important copper mine has been worked, and a colony of workmen and a smelting furnace has been established in this retired spot by government. Formerly between Borsa and Bisso a mine was worked, respecting the history of which little is known.

All the lead ores, rich in gold, bearing silver, in the whole of the Nagy-Banya district, are sent to the furnaces at Unter-Fernesee, and at Kapnik. The other ores go to Lapos-Banya, Ober-Fernesee, Felsö-Banya, and Olla-Lapos, where they are smelted, and the silver concentrated before it is sent to the refining furnaces at Unter-Fernesee and Kapnik. The copper is also separated at these furnaces, and refined by means of lead, and prepared for use. To this district belong the iron forges at Olla-Lapos and at Strimbul, and there are, besides, two large estates attached to it. The gold and silver which are obtained are parted and coined at the mint at Nagy-Banya, which likewise has the care of the copper which is coined. The Nagy-Banya district yields annually from 18,000 to 20,000 marks of silver, from 400 to 500 marks of gold, 3000 centners of copper, and between 10,000 and 12,000 centners of lead. The iron, however, from a want of proper skill in the processes, scarcely exceeds 4000 centners. The greater part of the labourers in these works are Walachians, and scarcely one-third Hungarians; the whole number who, in the immediate works on the collateral occupation, find employment, amounts to 10,000 or 12,000.

IV. Banat District.

The town in which the chief direction of this district resides is Oraviza. Under this are arranged the mines, furnaces, and forges of Oravitz, Resz-Banya, Saszka, Dognaczka, Moldava, Milova, Bogsan, Reschitz, Tschiklova, and Russberg.

The working of the mines in Banat is chiefly in the hands of private individuals, to whom likewise belong the smelting furnaces of Oravizt, Reszbanya, Dognaczka, Saszka, and Moldava, who deliver the metals to government, according to the terms established by law. On the other hand, the copper mines, and the smelting works at Milova, the copper hammer at Tschiklova, and the iron furnaces and forges at Bogsan, Reschitz, and Russberg, are conducted at the expence of the government.

In the circuit of Oravitz, the greater part of ores are copper ores holding no silver; sometimes they contain silver, and very rarely cobalt. Formerly cobalt was more frequent, and some bismuth used to be found.

At Dognaczka, about the year 1770, some very rich veins were discovered; but this has ceased, and, at present, little, except copper and zinc, is obtained.

In the circuit of Saszka, a little copper containing silver, but more lead containing silver, is worked, and a furnace has been established at Saszka for preparing the ores of zinc.

In the district of Moldava, nothing but copper without silver is obtained; but the copper it yields, which is refined on the spot, is of very excellent quality; and the *Roseten-kupfer* is employed, partly in the royal brass works, and partly in those of private companies, and is in part consumed by the brass-founders and workers in bronze. Similar copper, but in smaller quantities, is found at Moldava. In the Biharer comitatus, in the circuit of Reszbanya, silver, containing copper and lead, are obtained, and are smelted on the spot.

Until about the year 1795, it was the custom to send, every year, the *copper* containing silver, which had been obtained in the Banat, to the royal refining works at Tajova in Lower Hungary, but to separate the silver from the *lead* in the Banat, sell the lead, and transport the silver to the royal mint at Karlsburg in Transylvania; latterly, however, the cop-

per containing silver has been treated in the furnaces on the spot, with the assistance of the lead, and the products of the lead furnaces, and the copper and silver are thus obtained, with great saving of expence.

In the mine of Milova, the copper is generally found in its native state; and it is the only copper mine in the Banat which is worked by the government; the rest are all in the hands of individuals, who obtain wood and coals for the furnaces from the royal forests, and bread for their labourers from the royal administration of revenue at Temeswar, at very moderate prices.

The whole yearly produce of copper in the Banat, which was once so great, is now reduced to 5000 or 7000 centners, and the silver to about 200 marks.

To the Banat district belongs the zinc furnace at Dognaczka, in which, from the ores of that place, and of Saczka, 500 centners of metallic zinc are annually obtained, a large part of which is consumed at the royal brass manufactory in Styria.

Lastly, to the same district belong the royal iron furnaces and hammers at Bogschan and Recziza, and the iron work at Russburg, and the copper hammer of Tschiklowa. The two first are provided with blast furnaces and hammers. At Bogschan, before the last Turkish war, iron cannons were cast, which were bored by a machine constructed by the chief engineer, Kluster, and worked under water to prevent the great heat. At the copper hammers of Tschiklowa, bar and sheet copper are manufactured; and, for some years, the plates for the coining of the mint at Karlsburg in Transylvania have been prepared at this place.

The number of persons employed in the whole mining and works of the Banat amounts to 4000 or 5000 persons, chiefly Walachians.

All questions of right and property arising in this mining district are referred to the Court of Direction, and the Districtual Mining Court of Judicature at Oravitz, under which there are subsidiary local courts. Here the matter is first investigated, and judgment given; but an appeal may be made to the Königliche Tafel, and thence to the Septemviral Tafel. Questions referring to the science and manipulation go before the royal office of coining and mines; and questions of revenue and duty belong to the royal Hungarian *Hofkammer*.

CORONATION OF JOSEPH I.

KING OF HUNGARY;

EXTRACTED FROM THE

"MONTHLY ACCOUNT,"

A Periodical Pamphlet, which appeared in London in 1687.

When speaking of the constitution of Hungary, I had occasion to mention the Diet or Reichstag of 1687, as having been marked by some concessions on the part of the nobles, respecting the hereditary descent of the Hungarian crown. This was, indeed, one of the most interesting periods in the modern history of the country. It was the moment of its final liberation from the oppressive yoke of the Turks; when it was fondly hoped that all the agitation and storm of foreign war, and of domestic strife, were to be appeased, and the clouds of terror which had floated over the disturbed land, both from the side of its Turkish enemies, and its Austrian defenders, were to be dispelled. Leopold, to whose successful arms the country was indebted for its freedom, justly considered this a most favourable juncture for urging the formal acknowledgment of the Austrian right of succession, and for procuring the repeal of a clause in the coronation diploma, which, though considered by the nobles as one of the bulwarks of their freedom, was in fact the avowal of a principle dangerous in itself, and necessarily subject to abuse, from the proud and unyielding spirit of that privileged body. The Emperor, in order to profit by the opportunity which offered, and to obtain at once the concession which he claimed, pressed the immediate coronation of his son Joseph as the hereditary king; and had he been satisfied to make a prudent use of the ascendancy he had acquired,

might, in all probability, have realized the fair hopes, to which his successes had given birth.

It is the interest of this period, into which I cannot here enter more at large, which induces me to extract from the *Monthly Accounts* (perio dical pamphlets which appeared in London in 1687, and are now very rarely to be met with) the narrative of the coronation of the young prince, written apparently by one who was present on the spot. He was certainly contemporary with the event.

The ceremony of coronation in Hungary is of itself a matter of no small curiosity; and the inaugural diploma, the act of coronation, and the coronation oaths, are all of them features which are here marked with a strength unknown in other European governments.

The first of these is a distinct statement of the conditions upon which the king is received as the hereditary sovereign; it declares, that he must himself preserve, and cause others to preserve, the liberty of the nation, together with the privileges, rights, laws, and customs, according to their import, as established by the king and the nobles assembled at diet;—that he shall not take the *royal crown* out of the country, but shall commit it to the custody of two lay guardians, who shall be appointed by the nobles, without any exceptions being made on account of their religion;—that he shall unite to the Hungarian crown all such territories as have at any time belonged to it, whenever they fall into his power;—that, on the failure of the male and female descendants of the Emperors Charles VI., Joseph I., and Leopold I., the right of unrestrained election shall revert to the states;—and, lastly, that every hereditary monarch shall, within six months of his ascending the throne, at a coronation diet, held within the limits of the kingdom, be called upon to approve of this diploma, and shall then also take the oaths.

The second part of the ceremony consists in the actual coronation, and the chief peculiarity of this is the reverential awe with which the crown itself is regarded as a sacred relic, preserved from the time when Stephan the Holy became the first possessor of the regal dignity in Hungary. Without the assistance of this the Hungarian has been taught almost to believe that no claim to the sovereignty can be rendered legitimate, and, "Quemcunque sacrâ coronâ coronatum videris, etiamsi bos

fuerit, adorato et pro sacrosancto rege ducito et observato," have been the words uttered by an Hungarian.

The third part of the ceremonial consists in the coronation oaths, which are of two kinds; first, for the protection of the Catholic church; and, secondly, for the preservation of the rights and laws of the country; which latter oath is made in the open assembly of the people.

The exceptionable clause, for the erasure of which the king contended, formed a part of the inaugural diploma, and was couched in the following terms: "*Quodsi vero Nos, vel aliquis successorum nostrorum, aliquo unquam tempore, huic dispositioni nostræ contraire voluerit, liberam habeant, harum auctoritate, sine nota alicujus infidelitatis, tam Episcopi, quam alii Jobbagiones ac Nobiles Regni universi et singuli, præsentes et futuri posterique, resistendi et contradicendi Nobis et Nostris successoribus, in perpetuum facultatem.*" This clause then was revoked, and the second article of the inaugural diploma, as it was printed at Pressburg, 8th December 1687, was formed expressly to say, "*Status declarant quod neminem alium, quam Suæ Majestatis masculorum hæredum primogenitum in perpetuum pro legitimo rege et domino sint habituri id ipsum etiam statuentibus articulo V. anni* 1547, *aliisque superinde exstantibus.*"

Having thus briefly explained the general character of the circumstances which accompanied the diet, I give the authentic and lively description to be found in the third and fourth numbers of the Monthly Accounts.

Vienna.—"On the 27th of October, the Electress of Bavaria went hence, on her return to Munich. On the 29th, the Emperor and Empress did also leave this town, with the Archduke Joseph, and the Archduchess Elizabeth, to go to Pressburg. The next day they dined at Wollffshall, and after having been complimented on the way by the deputies of the states, towards the evening they made their entrance into Pressburg. Several companies of Hungarian gentlemen marched before their Imperial Majesties, followed by two troops, and the hussars of Count Esterhazy, Palatine of Hungary. Count Erdedi came after with 100 gentlemen and hussars, then the greater part of the prelates in coaches. Count Antony Palfi, with 200 men of the commonalty of Neutra, who marched,

drum beating, and Count Badeoni, with 150 gentlemen; the magistrates, in their robes of ceremony, complimented the Emperor at the gates of the town, which he entered, while three discharges were made from the artillery of the town and castle.

"But, before we proceed to give an account of the matters there transacted, it will not be unseasonable to give a description of Pressburg, the principal city of Imperial Hungary. That town was known to the ancients by the name of Flexum; the Hungarians call it Poson; it is situated upon the northern shore of the Danube, and its ground extends along the sloping of a hill, whose top is possessed by the castle. The plain of the castle forms a figure of unequal sides, like that which geometricians call trapesoedes. The structure of it is pretty fine, and the fortifications as advantageous as the ground would allow. This city is very populous, being much resorted to by German and Italian merchants; and the Italians have caused a world of houses to be built there, after the Italian mode, which very much contributes to the embellishment of the city. It bears the title of an archbishoprick, and in its metropolitan church, one part of which is possessed by the Reverend Father Jesuits, they revere the sacred body of St John, Bishop of Alexandria. As the Turks have often threatened this place, its fortifications have carefully and constantly been improved, and they lined with a good garrison, and its magazines stored with all sorts of ammunition.

"On the morrow after the Emperor's arrival, the states of Hungary repaired to the palace, and attended on their Imperial Majesties to the chapel, where they assisted at a solemn mass; after which, the Emperor's propositions were made in the nobles' chamber. The Chancellor of Hungary made a speech in the Hungarian tongue, and the Emperor one in Latin, to set forth the reasons for which he was desirous that the Prince, his eldest son, might be crowned King of Hungary. His Imperial Majesty caused his intentions to be given in writing to the Chancellor of Hungary. The Hungarian lords, and the deputies of the states, answered, that they would take them into consideration, and kissed the Emperor's, the Empress's, and the Archduke's hands. His Imperial Majesty's propositions were to the following purport:

"His Imperial Majesty having, by the divine assistance, so gloriously

surmounted all those difficulties and hazards, which not only threatened the kingdom of Hungary, whose preservation and prosperity has been an object of his Majesty's immediate care, as well as that of his predecessors, ever since their subjection to them from the time of Ferdinand the First, but have also endangered his Majesty's sacred person and crown, whilst he freely exposed both in their defence, in opposition to the desperate attempts of his and their enemies, whose designs have not only been disappointed, and their force repelled, but by the continued successes in the field, the taking of Buda, and several other important places, that kingdom has been almost entirely delivered from that intolerable yoke they so long groaned under. His Majesty's next concern and application has been, to resettle those distracted countries, and to provide convenient remedies, that the miseries and calamities they have hitherto laboured under might be prevented for the future. In order to which, his Majesty is persuaded, there could be nothing more effectual to the purposes intended, than a convening of a general assembly of the states of the kingdom, and the proposing to them the most Serene Prince the Archduke Joseph for their king, under whose auspicious influences (blessed by the divine goodness) a peace and calm may descend upon these provinces, to be continued to after ages. And though his Majesty knows what right he could pretend to by conquest, and how justifiable it would be to make what alterations he thought fit in the constitutions of a country recovered from an enemy by his own arms, after so many years of possession; yet his Majesty, who has always considered them as his subjects, and values nothing more in his victory, than the opportunity it gives him to set them at ease, and make them sensible of the difference there is between being governed by a rightful sovereign or an oppressive usurper, is willing to restore to them the free enjoyment of all their laws and privileges, as far as may be consistent with the nature and principles of government, and this to be confirmed to them by the oath of the new king; as also, that there be annexed to the crown, under some few restrictions and qualifications, the dismembered parcels of the kingdom, to be governed by the same laws with the rest. And what his Imperial Majesty expects from them in return to his grace and goodness is, that the hereditary succession to the crown, which has formerly been acknowledged to be the right of the

Austrian family, however it has been since controverted, through the sinister interpretations of some men, who made use of the unhappy conjunctures of affairs to oppose it, should now recover its ancient vigour, and be established, beyond all disputes, by a solemn decree of the states. And moreover, that there be a formal authentic revocation of that clause in the coronation oath, which was consented to by Ferdinand the First, in pursuance of a decree made by King Andrew, in the year 1222, which makes it lawful for subjects to rise up in arms against their prince, as often as they conceive that he acts contrary to the established laws. It being unreasonable to impose an oath that so directly contradicts all divine as well as human sanctions, a compliance wherein must inevitably expose the kingdom to the same divisions and animosities that have already been the occasions of so much misery and ruin, by granting an impunity to the notorious disturbers of the public peace, who, under pretence of standing up in defence of the laws, have themselves acted against all rules of justice; choosing rather to enslave their country than to be debarred of the pernicious satisfaction of fettering their prince; but there is none now needs to be taught, that to overturn the government is an ill way to establish liberty. His Imperial Majesty is very sensible, that in a distempered state, and which has been long afflicted with war, many things must necessarily have happened to afford just matter of complaint, and that are fit to be redressed, it not being possible that unerring justice, and the strict laws of property, (which are the fruits and benefits of peace,) should be observed amidst the violence and confusion of armies; yet it must be considered from whence the occasions of these disorders sprung, and the whole blame must be laid to their charge, who have been the unhappy authors of those differences, that have been attended with so great mischiefs, which cannot be hoped to be totally removed till peace be again restored. His Majesty, therefore, recommends it to them, to digest into heads such things as may be proper for the present conjuncture, especially what relates to the inauguration intended, and to present the same to his Majesty within twelve or fourteen days, that there be no loss of time, which is so necessary to be employed in preparations to prosecute the rest of the war; and for what shall remain now unfinished, it is offered to be

referred to commissioners to be chosen for that purpose, or to the next assembly of the diet.

" Notwithstanding the court did so earnestly press expedition, and that several days have been appointed for the archduke's coronation, it is judged as yet to be uncertain; for though the point of the succession is determined in the following manner, viz. That the imperial masculine branch of the august house of Austria shall be called to the hereditary succession of that realm, to the exclusion of the feminine, which nevertheless shall succeed upon failure of the male's line; and if in case both should chance to fail, as has befallen several royal families that have been extinguished by length of ages, the kings and princes of the eldest branch of Austria of Spain shall be called to the hereditary succession of that crown, according to the natural order of preference of sexes to the two former, in case they should chance to fail, and with exclusion of all other royal families of Europe. Thus, though that point is settled, yet as the states, among other things, persist to demand that the new king swear to and confirm the ancient capitulations of the kings of Hungary;—that there be a free election of the states, and that a Protestant divine may sit and have a deliberative voice in the assemblies of the states, with a redress of grievances, and a security against further oppressions;—yet these things interfering, it is hardly expected the ceremony of the coronation will be performed before the new year be begun. In the mean while, this new king, though he be not as yet full ten years old, does often go abroad on horseback, attended by a numerous concourse of German and Hungarian nobility, who cannot sufficiently admire the prudence and vivacity of his wit; nor bless Heaven, to see, mounted upon the throne of Hungary, a prince of such vast hopes, accompanied with the victory and renown of the conquest of so many cities, provinces, and regions, which the triumphant arms of the Emperor, his august father, have rescued from the tyrannic yoke of the Ottomans. This new king has, in his palace royal of Pressburg, received, from the hands of the Cardinal Bonvisi, apostolical nuncio, the holy sacrament of confirmation, in the presence of their Imperial Majesties, with the wonted ceremonies. And the following day, the Emperor gave his Majesty the collar of the order of the Golden-Fleece, in his

anti-chamber, where were present several princes and lords, of the first quality, of both nations."

Vienna, January 1688—"In our last, we left the diet of Pressburg busy in making remonstrances and bargains before they would proceed to the coronation; during whose debates, there arrived at Pressburg deputies from Buda and Pesth, to have place in the assembly of the states of Hungary, but were not at first admitted by reason of contests for the precedency. They there demanded the first place among the deputies of the cities, as being annexed to those of the ancient metropolis of the kingdom, and at the long run it was granted them. On the 20th of the last month, the states presented to the Emperor an ample memorial of their demands and grievances, upon which they continue, with great earnestness, to require satisfaction; and, accordingly, the court has proceeded to find out expedients for the regulation of the principal affairs of the kingdom; and upon their reiterated complaints, has resolved to suppress the criminal chamber of Eperies, which was erected to try the accomplices of the late conspiracy, for which several Hungarians have been sentenced to death, without having observed the course established for criminal matters. The court has likewise granted them, that the distribution of quarters for the national and German troops, the paying of them, and the fund that shall be appointed for their maintenance, shall be henceforward regulated with Hungarian commissioners, that so the taxes may no longer depend upon the German officers alone, who regulated them with an absolute authority, without examining whether the people could furnish the sums they demanded of them. There will be also a chamber of finances settled at Buda, to receive the contributions which the Turks derived from the country when they were masters of the place, the greater part of which is appointed to complete repairing the fortifications, and entirely to refit some new works that were so ill built, that it is necessary to pull them down again, though there were expended upon them above four score thousand crowns, that were furnished by the Pope. We sent hence to Pressburg, to the value of 6000 florins, in pieces of gold and silver, to be distributed on the coronation day. They have on one side a naked Sabre

in a crown of laurel, and these words, *Amore et Timore;* and on the other, the archduke's name and the day of the coronation; the solemnity of which was accordingly performed on the 9th of the last month. First their Imperial Majesties, accompanied by the new king, heard mass in the chapel of the castle, and at ten o'clock in the morning, all the Hungarian and German lords repaired in cavalcade to the place of the palace, having, with great emulation, studied to outdo each other in richness of attire and equipage, according to the mode of the two nations, with a world of jewels, which, upon their vestments, as well as upon the horse's trappings, produced so marvellous an effect, that these animals, by their prancings, seemed to be thereby the more spirited. Their Imperial Majesties entered into a stately coach of parade, drawn by eight horses, whose embellishments, cut in sculpture, did surpass the value of the gold that covered it, as well as the riches within, and all the other parts, which dazzled the sight, and seemed to be of massy gold; insomuch, that one might with Ovid say, *Materiem superabat opus.* Such advantage did the just symmetry of the reliefs, finely wrought, give to the gilding, and received the like thence. The new king being also got into a very magnificent coach, drawn in like manner by eight horses, marched from the castle to the city before their Imperial Majesties, being preceded and followed by the noble life-guard of the yeomen, and of all the lords of the two nations on horseback; and being come amid the noise of drums, timbals, and trumpets, before the gate of the cathedral church of St Martin,—spread with most sumptuous carpets and tapestries, and adorned with a world of pictures of the most excellent painters, ancient and modern, and with a magnificent theatre, with several steps, erected in the body of the church, taking up above half its space; it was upheld with thirty-six columns, or pillars, on which reposed the whole machine, and the embellishments of the architecture of the Mosaic and Doric fashion, sparkled with the lustre of the gold with which they were set off;—they were received at the church door by the Archbishop of Gran, at the head of twelve bishops, of fourteen prelates and abbots, all invested with their pontifical habits, and by all the clergy of that cathedral, accompanied by the Cardinal Bonvisi, apostolical nuncio, by the Cardinal de Collonitz, and the ambassadors of Spain and Venice, who introduced them with the new

king, amid a royal salvo of the ordnance from the city and castle, into the sacristy, where their Sacred Majesties, having been invested with the imperial robes, they were conducted to a magnificent throne that had been prepared for them, and the march was performed in the manner following: Two heralds at arms of the empire, with coats of arms embroidered with gold, and the imperial eagles before and behind, and with all the other marks of their character, marched in their head, and were followed by the heralds at arms of the kingdom of Hungary, also in all the ornaments of their office. The noble guard de corps of the yeomen, and that of the halbardiers, clothed with a livery of black and yellow velvet of the imperial sort, preceded the Count of Mansfeldt and the Count Colloredo, their captains, whose sumptuous clothes did infinitely glitter with the jewels with which they were covered. They were followed by their Imperial Majesties' pages and footmen, clothed in the same livery with the yeomen and halbardiers. The clergy, with all the bishops, abbots, prelates, provosts, and others in ecclesiastical dignities, had here their rank, all with their mitres upon their heads, the crosiers in their hands, and their copes upon their shoulders; they were followed by the ministers, princes, and grandees of the court, the Cardinals Bonvisi and Collonitz, and the ambassadors of Spain and Venice, who preceded immediately the Emperor, having the imperial mantle upon his shoulders, and the crown upon his head. He had two bishops on each side of him, and all the other imperial ornaments were borne before his Most Sacred Majesty by two princes and two counts of the empire, viz. the sword by the Prince of Schwartzenberg, representing the grand marschal of the empire; the sceptre, upon a cushion of gold, by the Prince of Hohenzollern; the globe, or golden apple, representing the world, by the Count de Czeil; and the case for the crown, by the Count de Sinzendorff; and in this manner, accompanied by the Empress, also in imperial habits and the crown on her head, their Sacred Majesties went and placed themselves upon the throne that had been prepared for them.

" After this first ceremony, the bishops, prelates, and whole clergy in a body, being returned to the sacristy, did there receive the new king, and conducted him to a throne erected near the altar, separated from that of their Imperial Majesties, in the manner following: The ten he-

ralds at arms of Hungary in their coats, embroidered with gold, having the arms of that kingdom before and behind, and of the ten provinces that hold of it, had the first rank in this march. The new king of Hungary's guard preceded his pages and staffmen, clothed in a new very magnificent livery. The bishops, prelates, and clergy in a body, all pontifically habited, were preceded by the grandees of the kingdom, ten of the principal of whom carried each a standard in his hand, representing the ten provinces that hold of the crown. The new king, habited after the Hungarian mode, accompanied by two bishops with their mitres on their heads, followed by the clergy, and immediately by Count Esterhazy, palatine; Count Stephen Zeaki, supreme judge; Count Nicholas Erdeodi, ban of Croatia; Count John Drascovitz, lord steward; and Count Erini, marschal of Hungary: and as soon as his Hungarian Majesty was placed upon the throne, mass was begun, wherein the Archbishop of Gran, being about 86 years old, and primate of the kingdom, officiated pontifically, and as soon as they were come to the epistle, the palatine and marschal of the kingdom made a low bow before their Imperial Majesties' throne, and before that of the new king, at the foot of which they went to receive him, and conducted him to the altar, where, after having performed an act of confession of the faith, they asked him what he desired, he made answer that he would be crowned, whereupon the archbishop blessed and inaugurated him, anointing his hand, arm, and shoulder. The palatine, after this unction, turning towards the Hungarian lords and people, shewed them the crown he held in his hands, and did, with a loud voice, call out to them three times in the Hungarian tongue, *Coronabimus Josephum Archiducem Austriæ in Regem Hungariæ*, and they three times answered, unanimously, with a loud voice, *Coronetur;* and then the archbishop invested him with the royal mantle of St Stephen, girt on his sword, put the sceptre in his hand, and the crown on his head, which had been presented to him by the palatine and marschal of the kingdom. And after this ceremony, he was proclaimed King of Hungary by the loud acclamations of all the assistants, amid the noise of drums, kettle-drums, trumpets, and other warlike instruments, in like manner as by a royal salvo from the artillery of the city and fortress. And after these acclamations of triumph and joy, they reconducted his

Hungarian Majesty upon the throne, and *Te Deum* was sung by way of thanksgiving for the accession of so worthy a prince to the crown, which the invincible arms of his august father had wrested out of the hands of the enemies of the Christian name, and from the fury of rebellion.

" This ceremony being ended, the archbishop continued the holy sacrifice, and when he was at the gospel, the Emperor arose, with the sceptre in his right hand, and the globe in the other, and continued standing till it was over; and after the consummation, the new king communicated, through the hands of the officiating prelate, the tenderness of whose heart, which he was sensible of that day, and which he had ever so ardently desired, cannot be better expressed than by the tears of joy he shed, as well as several of the by-standers, and by the discourse in Latin which he made after mass, upon the subject of the high ministry he had newly performed, in the person of a prince, the most accomplished in the universe, and it was this excess of joy which made him end with the canticle of S. Simeon: *Nunc dimittis servum tuum Domine, &c.*

" This discourse being over, their Imperial Majesties descended from the throne, and returned to the sacristy to put off the imperial ornaments, and then to the castle, where a whole ox was set forth to the people, a piece of it, covered with flowers, having been first served up to the Emperor's table; and from that time, several fountains of wine ran in abundance from divers parts of the town, as well as from the castle. In the mean while, the new king, who also descended from his throne with their Imperial Majesties, being come out of the church with his royal ornaments, and the crown on his head, preceded by the bishops, clergy, and all the orders of the states, and by a great concourse of the people and burgery. He went on foot procession-wise, in this manner, to the Recollet's church, where, having accomplished the usual function upon the throne erected there, by the creation of sixty knights of the Golden Spur of several nations; and then, having taken a repast in the refectory, he mounted on horseback, and was preceded by the cavalcade already mentioned, and by the Counts John Esterhazy D'Emene, Nicolas Deglevig, Adam Hollonitz, Tho. Nadasti, Wolfang Kohari, Simon Forgatz, Nicolas Berzeni, Ferdinandi Keri, and Ladislas Karoli, who carried

the ten standards with the arms of the ten provinces of Hungary, viz. Bulgaria, Cumania, Lodomiria, Valicia, Servia, Rama, Sclavonia, Croatia, Dalmatia, Hungaria; and then other grandees of the same kingdom, with all the marks and badges of royalty, in the ensuing manner: Count John Drascovitz carried the truncheon of command; Count Adam Serini, marschal of the kingdom, the sword; Count Erdeodi, the dove; Count Nicolas Erdeodi, ban of Croatia, the globe; Count Stephen Cziaki, the sceptre; and the Palatine, the crucifix of St Stephen. Thus, his Majesty being served by the Prince of Salme, his grand-master, went out of the town through St Michael's gate, where he found the regiment of foot of Staremberg, and that of Palfi's curassiers, in battalions and squadrons; and being come to the stately scaffold, that was erected just opposite to the monastery of the Brothers of Mercy, he alighted, placed himself upon a throne that was prepared for him under a state of cloth of gold, and then, amid the noise of the cannon, took the oath of maintaining the privileges of the kingdom in the manner agreed on. After which, taking horse again, he went to another theatre erected upon a rising ground at the Fish-Gate, whence he ran full speed up Koningsberg or Mount-Royal with his naked sword in his hand, with which he also made the sign of the cross towards the four parts of the world, to express that he would defend the kingdom against all its enemies. He was attended on in all these stations by the Camergrave of the cities of the mountains, and by the Baron de Viecter, councellor of the chamber of the finances, who threw out to the people, within and without the town, medals and other species of gold and silver money, with the following inscriptions borrowed from the Patriarch Jacob's dying benediction to his son Joseph: as that, "I will give to Joseph, and his seed after him, this land for an everlasting possession:" Others were, "I will give to Joseph the portion I took from the enemy with my sword and with my bow:" And a third sort, "The blessings of thy father have prevailed above the blessings of my progenitors, and they shall rest upon the head of Joseph." IosephVs prIMVs InferIorIs atqVe sVperIorIs HVngariæ reX pIVs fortIs AVgVstVs, ArChIDVX AVstrIæ. And this royal function being terminated in this manner, and the new king, upon his return to the castle, perceiving that his sword was covered with his mantle royal, said, in Ita-

lian, *Fatte che si veda la mia Sciabla ;* and being come into the castle, amid a royal salvo of the artillery, he alighted from off his horse, and went to the apartments, attended by all the principal personages of both nations. It was about five o'clock in the afternoon when he returned, and within half an hour after, he caused two hundred tables, with twenty covers each, to be served to the states, wherein nothing was wanting to the profusion and delicacy of meats, and they rose not from table until three o'clock in the morning. Their Imperial Majesties took their place at the upper end of that which was prepared for them, under a rich canopy of cloth of gold ; on their right sat the new king under another, and on the left the eldest archduchess ; and after having left on each side a vacant space, Cardinal Bonvisi, the apostolical nuncio, possessed the fifth place on the right, Cardinal Collonitz the sixth on the left, the Spanish ambassador the seventh, and the eighth the Venetian, the Archbishop of Gran the ninth, and the tenth and last was filled by the Palatine of Hungary, whom his Imperial Majesty has created a prince of the Holy Roman Empire, and Count Stephen Zacchi, General of Cassaw, supreme judge of the court of the kingdom of Hungary, an eminent trust that happened to be vacant through the death of Count Drascovitz. But to return, the Emperor was served by Prince Gundaccar de Diedrichstein, the great master of his household ; the Empress by Count Charles Waldestein, invested with the same employ ; and the new king by the Prince de Salme, on whom his Majesty has conferred the same trust. A world of Hungarian lords served as carvers, some of whom also served the cardinals and the ambassadors of Spain and Venice. There were eighty other tables in the palace, for the prelates, nobility of Hungary, and foreigners, which were served at the same time with that of the Emperor, besides the two hundred others for people of less character, and for the domestics of the lords of both nations. After his Imperial Majesty had begun the first health, which was done amid discharges of the ordnance, the young king drank another separately to all the guests, according to the order of their sitting, for the enlargement and happiness of his kingdom ; which having been admired by all the company, the Emperor told him that he had done well, but desired to know who had put him upon it, to which he made answer, that none had put him upon

it, but that he had thought fitting to do it, so to declare the natural obligation which kings have to love and defend their subjects, and subjects to serve and honour their princes. So judicious and ingenious an answer as this was no less agreeably surprising, than the health he had newly drunk had created admiration; insomuch, that the Hungarian lords cried out aloud, and with applause, that God had given them this king totally to retrieve that realm from the oppression of the infidels, and to extend the glory of his arms much further than all his predecessors were able to do."

AN ACCOUNT

OF THE

VINEYARDS OF MENES,

From Dr Lübeck's Hungarian Miscellany, 1805.

Ménes, which gives its name to the well known sweet red wine, is an inconsiderable village on the eastern borders of the Arader Comitatus; and as the Tokay wine is not entirely the product of the mountain which bears that name, so likewise the Ménescher is obtained from the whole extent of a chain of hills, on which the villages of Gladova, Old and New Paulis, Ménes, Gyorok, Kuvin, Kovaszints, and some others, ranging from south to north, are situated. These hills are of moderate elevation, but in many parts so steep, that when heavy rains set in, large tracts of ground are often carried away, and the labour of many years is destroyed in a few minutes. The soil of these vineyards varies considerably; in general, it consists of a red-brown clay, mixed with sand. In many places, the clay contains little sand, and is more inclined to yellow. These yield a great quantity of wine, though little of the *Ausbruch.* The rock of the whole of this chain is clay slate.

The climate of this district is mild, but not so warm as its geographical situation might lead us to expect. All the hills are connected with the Carpathians, from which a harsh chilling wind constantly blows, so that the night air even in summer is frequently of a very low temperature,

and in winter intensely cold. The situation and aspect of these elevated grounds is picturesque and beautiful. The villages, placed close to each other, on the foot of the elevations towards the plain of Arad, connected by houses for pressing wine, and by numerous habitations of nobles, and affluent citizens, give the whole country an appearance of cultivation ; and the summits clothed with forests, from their situation, height, and form, assisted by the ruins of Világosvár, afford variety and grandeur to the scene. Nothing is wanting in this beautiful landscape but a nearer view of the river ;—the Maros, indeed, flows from Soborsin by Radna and Lippa,—the one a shrine to which, at stated times, the peasants make a pilgrimage, the other the most important market in the district ;—it then winds along the base of the mountains, which it presently leaves and turns by Paulis, westwards, towards Arad, and thence to Szegedin, when, losing itself in the distance, it traverses the country over an unbroken and fruitful plain, which terminates in the flat wastes of the Arader and Békeser comitatus.

The labourers and inhabitants of this country, with the exception of the villagers of Paulis, are entirely Walachians. They are well disposed, but poor, industrious from necessity, and understand the cultivation of the vine ; health, strength of body, and cheerfulness, are their riches ; long fasting, miserable habitations, and bad clothing, are their customary lot ; and drinking is their consolation in distress. Their marriages are happy and productive,—their priests and magistrates infallible,—a fair is to them a time of carnival,—they have no rural festivals, and disturbances are almost unknown ; and, when they occur, are of short duration.

The cultivation of the vineyard is the principal occupation of the Walachians in this district, and even women and children labour in it, either for themselves, for their lords, or for hire. According to the situation of their lands, they have more or less arable or mountain pasture ; but their other agricultural pursuits are always considered secondary to the labour of the vineyard, as is constantly the case in wine countries. The chief product of their fields is maize, which is their principal, and almost their only food. No product of the country is offered for sale in the market, except a few swine, some meagre cattle, and small quantities of beans.

Plums are here cultivated to a considerable extent, that is to say, the trees are planted, and the fruit gathered. From these the peasants generally themselves manufacture the well known *(Zwetschen-Brandtwein)* damson brandy, and then sell it to the Jews and Rahzen, who are settled principally in the village of Gyorok. In the vineyards are seen many cherry-trees, apricot, peach, and almond, and in the valleys, the filbert. The apple and the pear are little cultivated. On the borders, and in the divisions of the vineyards, they plant culinary vegetables, particularly the beet and carrot, which thrive well.

The culture of the forests is rather neglected, because there is little demand for timber, and much timber for building is floated down the Maros, from the forests above Soborsin. The chief income from the forests of Ménes and Gladova arises from the feeding of swine and goats; for each goat 10 kreutzers, or from threepence to sixpence, are paid, and the animal is then at liberty to wander in the forest the whole summer. In autumn, the goats are killed and sold, and frequently yield a very profitable return. Other cattle are here neglected. Flax and hops are not cultivated. Hemp is grown for private consumption, each family making its own hempen and coarse woollen cloth. The industry of the women is particularly remarkable,—they are always spinning, and even when they go to market with a burden on their heads, they carry the distaff in their hands.

Ménes, Gladova, and Paulis, are on the royal domain. Gyorok is the property of the family of Edelsbacher. The vineyards are held by the peasantry on the usual tenure, giving a ninth and a tenth of the wine produced to the landlord, and two florins for each Still for preparing spirit, with some other small dues. The Ausbruch and the Máslás pay no tenths. Much care is bestowed on the cultivation of the vineyards, because the lord has the right of taking them away from such as neglect them, and giving them to others. There are here, as in some other districts, *Bergrichters* and *Berg-geschwörne*, who are generally peasants. The quantity of the tenths is calculated by officers sent from some other place, who, having examined the cellars, give notice of the quantity due upon a piece of paper to the tenant; and the wine is sent accordingly to the lord's cellar.

The greater part of these vineyards belong to persons who do not reside on the spot, but who have houses for their wine-presses, and for temporary residence, which they occupy from the beginning of October till the end of November, during which time joy and cheerfulness reign throughout, and, in many places, balls, amusements, parties of pleasure, and fireworks, add to the gaiety of the season.

The proprietor employs a peasant to keep his house, and superintend the conduct of the vineyard, whose annual pay is at least 30 gulden, 1 stein of salt, 2 pair of shoes, a large cloak, lodging, and wood, besides his common allowance as a workman, when he labours in the vineyard.

The produce of the vineyards varies very much with the soil. The richest and most highly flavoured wines grow in the old, high, stony, and scanty-bearing vineyards of Gladova, and those of Ménes, Gyorok, Paulis, and a part of Kovaszints. In the vineyards of Ménes, the quality of the wine is undoubtedly in the inverse ratio to the quantity; other circumstances, as exposure, culture, and the species of grape being the same. In almost every vineyard the different species of grape grow promiscuously, no care having yet been taken to cultivate them separately; yet the grape which is most admired is that which has been figured by Sikler, in his *Garten-Magazin* of 1804, under the name of the *Hungarian Blue*. His description, however, is, in many respects, erroneous. It has a very sweet reddish coloured juice and a thin skin, and becomes ripe, in favourable seasons, towards the end of September. Almost as soon as it is ripe, the watery parts begin to evaporate, and the grapes shrivel, whence they are called *Trockenbeeren* or *Zibebe;* in Hungarian, *Aszú Szölo ;* in Walachian, *Bómbele ;* and are fit for making Ausbruch. This is the only kind of grape which yields the true *Trockenbeeren*, and is called in Walachian *Dinka* and *Ranka*.

It would be useless to enlarge on the subject of culture, as it resembles that of other vineyards; but we may mention, generally, the successive operations which begin early in spring. If the vines have been covered up, it will be necessary to open them; and then in succession to cut, to hoe, to drive stakes, to bind, to hoe, to lop the branches, to bind again, to weed, to pull off the leaves, to gather, and, lastly, if it be judged expedient, to cover up. Industrious cultivators are

accustomed to hoe three times ; at the end of March after the cutting ; at the beginning of June after the binding and before the blossoms break forth ; and at the end of July when the fruit begins to swell ; which labour, particularly in deep ground, is well repaid ; and, to their credit, it may be said, that by far the greater part give this proof of their industry ; sometimes after long wet weather, they hoe a fourth time, in the end of September, and have no reason to think their time ill employed.

The *Siebenbürger* vineyards throughout, and in general the *Kopf* vineyards likewise, are planted in straight lines, the plants in the former being placed at about two, or two and a half feet, from each other ; and in the latter somewhat closer.

The propagation of the vine is effected by means of cuttings, which are small twigs, collected in the spring, bound together, and put into the earth in some shady place, where they take root, and are in June planted out in their proper places ; or they are propagated, by bending a branch down, inserting it in the earth, and, when it has taken root, separating it from the parent stem ; or the whole old stock is laid down, and the branches so distributed, as to give new trees in the direction required. As to the improvement of the vine by grafts, buds, and other methods, it appears that nothing of the kind is practised.

The vineyards are generally divided into two classes, *Kopf* vineyards, and *Siebenbürger* vineyards ; the first include the mountains and the mountain tops ; the latter occupy the valleys, and the foot of the mountains. They differ from each other as follows : The Kopf vineyards are cut low, and the vines suffered to bear two branches only, so that they form a dwarf stock, yield few bunches, and seldom require stakes ; their vegetation is feeble ; but, when they are cultivated with care, they repay the labour with small grapes, in few and meagre bunches, yielding rich and generous wine. The *Trockenbeeren* also, which are suited to prepare the Ausbruch, are originally the produce of vineyards of this kind ; and it is only in very favourable years, by the assistance of most careful cultivation, and the practice of removing the leaves, that the vineyards called *Siebenbürger* yield the *Trockenbeeren*, which seldom equal those obtained from the

Kopf vineyards. *In proportion as the soil is poor and stony, and the vine feeble, the fruit and wine, though small in quantity, become more excellent in their quality.* This is a rule which daily experience in these vineyards confirms.

The *Siebenbürger* vineyards occupy the valleys and fertile lands, where their vegetation in wood and leaf, and, in the quantity of fruit, is far more vigorous; they are trained five feet high, and each stock has one or two branches trained in arches, for which purpose, at the time of cutting, two luxuriant branches, with a number of fruit buds, are preserved. These vineyards are likewise dunged, the earth being dug out round the vines, and dung thrown in, after which the holes are again filled up; from all which it results, that, in good years, such vineyards yield a great quantity of fruit, sometimes 50 bunches upon one tree, but the wine is very inferior to that of the Kopf vineyard. From these vineyards, the wines which are paid as tenths, and that which is sold in public-houses, are usually obtained. The mode of culture is as follows: In the spring of the year, as soon as frost is no longer dreaded, the vines which had been covered in the winter are laid completely open, that is, the branches are drawn by hand from beneath the earth, and the stock exposed to the air by means of a hoe. They are then cut; an operation which is only entrusted to peasants long experienced in the vineyards, and as this labour is of the first importance, it is paid with high wages. In 1801, a vine-cutter was paid 30 kreutzers, or one-half florin daily, besides the allowance of a glass of spirits in the afternoon. The cutting is justly considered as of the greatest importance, both to the productiveness and the duration of the vine; and the plants which are unskilfully treated shew the effects of it for many years. In this work, the branches which are fit for forming the arches, to the number of one or two, according to the strength of the vine, are selected, and left altogether uncut; three other branches, at most, are fixed upon to be preserved, and are cut, leaving two buds; all the remaining shoots, scions, and branches, are cut away even with the stock. After this, the trees are removed and set in order if it be thought necessary. Then the poles are driven in; for, in the autumn, all the poles, particularly in the Siebenbürger vineyards, where they must be eight feet in length, and are of considerable value, are taken out, and a cross being formed by four

driven into the earth, the rest are laid upon it to keep them from the ground; while, in other vineyards, the poles are only reversed, so that the end which was in the earth may be exposed. These poles are of oak, fir, lime, or ash; and, in spite of a theory which has been started, that the acid of the oak is absorbed by the vine, and renders the wine bitter, this wood is much preferred. Next follows the operation of bending the branches, which is generally entrusted to women; and the uncultivated Walachian does this as skilfully as the women in the vineyards of France, bending the end of the branch, as if she had studied the words of Chaptal, not to the poles, but to the foot of the vine stock. The bands which they employ are formed of willow twigs, which are brought to the markets about this period, sometimes of rushes, and very seldom of straw,—in cases of need, matting from the inner bark of the lime tree is also used, but this is forbidden by law, as it injures the trees. The next operation is to hoe the earth, which, in this case, is heaped around the stock from which it had before been removed. The cultivator takes great care that all this work is performed before the buds begin to swell, and the leaves to shew themselves, as any injury done to the bud at that period is irreparable. After this, the work is considered as complete till the commencement of April, and the peasant is, in the meantime, allowed to cultivate his summer crops, his maize, and his beans. If favourable weather occurs at this time, the vintner goes, when it is not wet and miry, into the vineyard, and with his hand breaks off the luxuriant and barren shoots, examines the bands which secure the arches, and, towards the end of May, ties the branches to the poles with thin pieces of matting, made pliable by soaking in water. In the Kopf vineyards, where there are frequently no poles, the branches which are left after this thinning are bound together in bunches, so that they may mutually support each other. In the high mountain vineyards, where the shoots are small and diverging, there is no occasion for binding, as then the grapes generally grow close to the stock, and seldom at a distance of above two joints from it. In proportion to the luxuriance of growth, whether owing to climate, soil, weather, or the nature of the vine, diligence must be used in cutting out the young wood, since upon this depends the crop for many successive years; and a stock which has been once weakened by high cutting, by leaving much wood, or by insufficient care in removing the young

shoots, either dies entirely, or remains for many years barren; besides which, the grapes which are obtained are but of little value for wine.

In the end of May, the second hoeing takes place, followed by the period of bloom. The vineyard is now deemed sacred ground, on which no one is permitted to tread, and even the keeper himself goes only in the broad ways, seldom entering the narrow paths, lest he should disturb the stocks at this important period of flowering and forming the fruit. The vintner earnestly prays, at this time, for mild and gentle showers; and every storm, every dark cloud, and each distant rising of the wind, awakens his fears.

About the middle of July, if it be necessary, particularly in the Siebenbürger vineyards, the trees are again tied up, and the third hoeing, to bring the earth round the stock, takes place about the time that the grapes begin to swell.

In the beginning of September, the weather and the quantity of grass growing in the vineyard, must determine whether it be necessary to hoe the ground a fourth time, or to weed it. On this point cultivators are not agreed. For destroying the grass, weeding is the most effectual, as the roots are pulled up, while the hoe only cuts the stem, and if the weather be wet the grass soon reappears. If, however, the chief object be to loosen the earth, and admit air, moisture, and warmth, to the roots, it may be well to hoe; every one must be guided by the necessity of the case, but, unfortunately, many adopt neither one plan nor the other. In order to promote, as much as possible, the ripening of the grape, many proprietors, particularly in the Siebenbürger vineyards, are accustomed, in the middle of September, to remove the leaves, in order, that, by taking off these and the small branches, the fruit may be more freely exposed to the influence of the sun and the air. Many experiments have proved that this operation is beneficial, but it must be conducted with caution, and regulated by the circumstances of the vineyard. In wet years, when many leaves push forth, it becomes more necessary, to give the grapes an opportunity of ripening; in warm dry years, it is less requisite, and must be done with caution, lest, by robbing the grapes of shade, the heat of the sun should burn them up; but, in any case, a prudent removal of the leaves, about the middle of September, repays the

labour by riper fruit; fewer bunches, particularly in wet seasons, grow mouldy, and the leaves and tendrils afford an excellent fodder for cattle.

At this time many fine bunches of grapes are consumed at the table as delicacies. Dogs, foxes, badgers, and a countless multitude of birds and insects, have their share; and besides the basketfuls eaten at the table of the proprietors, many are either given or sold to the inhabitants of neighbouring towns, and many fall from the trees and are lost. Amidst all these appalling circumstances the owner, with hope and trembling, awaits the period of the vintage. Often in the district of Ménes and Paulis, a destructive hail-storm overwhelms, in a few moments, all the hopes of the year; sometimes breaking down the vines themselves, and blasting the prospect of the following season.

When the season for gathering the grape arrives, all the wine-presses and the casks, both new and old, are carefully cleansed with boiling water, or sometimes with boiling wine. For remedying the defects of new oak casks, nothing has been found more efficacious than a decoction of the vine leaf. Every thing being prepared, the labourers, accompanying their work with songs, or the well-known note of the bagpipe, commence the vintage. The vine-gatherers stand in varied ranks; women and children, old and young, freeing the vines from their bonds, and collecting the grapes into the wooden troughs, or pails, which they carry with them;—behind them follows the *Weinzedler*, watching that no grapes are left ungathered. The men collect from each the stores they have gathered, and carry them in tubs to the persons employed to prepare the Must, who throw the grapes into a vessel for the purpose, and beat them with large sticks. This vessel has a double bottom, the lower one complete, that which is above pierced with holes, so that the juice which is pressed out escapes through it; and, when the upper part is full, the grapes are emptied into the wine-press; or, if they are to be carried from the place, into a cask set in a frame.

The gathering is generally divided into two parts, the white and the red; for the white wine, all white and rose-coloured grapes are taken, the mouldy and rotten are seldom rejected, but all are bruised together, and placed, without delay, upon the press, and the expressed juice is immediately put into casks. When the press is small or the vintage

great, the bruised grapes are often put into sacks, and trodden under foot. The husks are from these sacks brought to the press, and what remains from the press, is put into vessels, to be afterwards distilled for brandy. The red grapes are gathered precisely in the same way as the white, only, after having been bruised, they are not put immediately into the press, but into large vats, where they undergo a kind of fermentation.

Such is the mode of gathering the ordinary grapes. Those out of which Ausbruch is made, are treated in a different way. It has already been said, that in favourable seasons, the best sorts, particularly the *Hungarian Blue*, yield Trockenbeeren, that is, grapes dried in the sun, and that these are chiefly the produce of higher situations, stony mountains, poor soils, and old vine stocks; but in very favourable weather they are produced in lower land, and even in the Siebenbürger vineyards, in which case the mode of gathering is the same. When the gathering is completed in those vineyards where no *Trockenbeeren* are to be found, these latter also are collected in the following manner: Women go in ranks through the vineyard, and cut off, into their vessels, those bunches only on which they perceive some of the *Trockenbeeren*. They carry these grapes down to the foot of the mountain, to a place where they spread them on reed or straw mats, or coarse linen, and then, with great care, pick out the good and sound dried grapes, one by one, being very cautious to distinguish between the real *Trockenbeeren* and those which are withered, from being dead, rotten, or injured by insects. The grapes which have been thus carefully collected, are put by in separate vats for making Ausbruch, and those from which they have been selected yield the best ordinary wines.

The gathering of the *Trockenbeeren* is paid for either by the day or by the measure; and the proprietor must be very careful that they are not purloined by the pickers, and that no bad fruit, or other substance liable to ferment, gets amongst them, which would spoil the whole. These observations refer to such as gather from their own vineyards, with the view of manufacturing Ausbruch for themselves. The peasant also collects *Trockenbeeren* from his vineyard, but with the pur-

pose of selling them, and he find wine-makers in abundance who are ready to pay at the rate of 18 kreutzers the half mass. This opens a wide field for speculation, and many presons come to purchase *Trockenbeeren* who possess no vineyards, by which means the grapes often attain a very high price ; and it is a question yet undecided, whether it be more profitable to raise them for domestic manufacture, or to buy them in this way ; whenever they are offered for sale, there being a great competition of purchasers.

The termination of the vintage generally takes place about the end of October or the beginning of November, and often still later, when frost or snow bespeak the approach of winter. At this time the Siebenbürger vineyards are cut; the bent branches and all the others are taken off, except those which are intended for arches in the following year, and are chosen on account of their strength, health, and pliability. The number of these is generally two, but on weakly plants, in the fear of one being injured by the winter frosts, three branches are left. The prunings are then carried away, and the poles removed; after which, the whole vine stock, with its branches laid along the ground, is covered one foot deep with earth, and thus the labour of the vineyard is brought to a close before the snow falls. In the Kopf vineyards, the process of covering is only partially adopted ; and, indeed, from experience, it appears very doubtful, whether any material advantage is derived from this practice, for it seems that the vine is as capable as other plants of withstanding the winter frosts ; and by its remaining uncovered, the cultivator is able to commence the operation of pruning earlier in spring.

STATEMENT

OF THE

EXTENT AND PRODUCE

OF

THE AUSTRIAN VINEYARDS,

According to the Calculation of Blumenbach, 1816.

213·3 *Joch are equal to* 312 *English acres, or three English acres are rather more than two joch.*

One Eimer is equal to Nine Gallons and nearly Nine-tenths.

	Eimers of Lower Austria.
Bohemia contained, according to the survey instituted by Joseph II. 4408⅓ joch of vineyard, the average yearly produce of which was calculated . .	26,326
Each joch yielding somewhat less than 6 eimers.	
Moravia, on the same authority, contained 50,856 joch of vineyard; according to a former calculation, the annual produce was estimated at 458,542 eimers, but by an average of 27 years, it was found to be only . .	431,425
Each joch yielding nearly 8½ eimers.	
Austria under the Enns, held by measurement, in 1789, 78,661 joch, and 1326 square klafters of vineyard, which, according to a recent accurate calculation, produces	2,093,943
By which it would appear, that in this province, which is peculiarly favourable to the vine, the average produce of a joch amounts to 26½ eimers.	

Eimers of Lower Austria.

Austria over the Enns, on account of its soil and climate, has but few vineyards; altogether, not above 83 joch, which, on an average of 5 eimers, will give . . . 415

Styria, according to measurement, contains 50,759 joch of vineyard, whose produce is very differently estimated. According to Kindermann, it is not above 592,171 eimers. According to Dr Sartori, in good years, it amounts to 2,000,000. We will take the usual produce, according to Bisinger, ... 1,000,000

Giving about 20 eimers to the joch.

The Carinthian vineyards are, like those of the provinces over the Enns, inconsiderable. On the 226 joch devoted to the vine, are produced, according to Dr Sartori, only from 200 to 300 *startin,* 2,500

Crain, which formerly had above 15,051 joch of vineyard, does not now contain, owing to the parts which have been added to the coasting provinces, above 10,100 joch, yielding about 155,000

The Coasting Provinces consist of too many separate parts to allow of a general estimate. The counties of Görz and Gradiska, which, besides 10,286 joch of vineyard, have a great many vines distributed over them, and forming hedges in the meadows and fields, were, many years ago, estimated at 157,564 eimers. The district taken from Crain may be supposed 5051 joch, affording 100,000 eimers. The country about Triest raises much more than sufficient for its own consumption; and the districts taken from Venetian Friule yield much and excellent wine. The former Venetian peninsula of Istria reckons 8000 joch, which produces about 120,000 eimers. In the district of Buccari grow yearly, according to Graf Batthyany, 8000 *orns,* (9283 eimers.) On the estate of Winodol, from 12,000 to 15,000 eimers. On the islands of Cherso, Ossero, and Veglia, there are, according to Cattani, $18\frac{1}{10}$ Italian

	Eimers of Lower Austria.
square miles of vineyard, yielding annually 35,160 *barillen*. In the whole of the coasting provinces, we may, as a rough estimate, suppose 29,537 joch of vineyard, giving annually	358,000
Tyrol has 184,472 *morgen* of vineyard, whose produce is about	210,000
The Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, according to Veri, devotes to the culture of the vine in vineyards about 187,000 Austrian joch, besides which, much other land is planted with vines. The sum total of the produce may be .	5,890,000
The kingdom of Hungary, according to the survey instituted by Joseph, contained 851,690 joch of vineyard. The internal consumption of the country is very moderately estimated at 14,000,000 eimers. The whole produce is by some stated at 30,000,000 eimers, by others with greater probability at	18,000,000
Sirmien alone, according to Schwartner, has 106,853 *mottiken* of vineyard, each yielding 3 eimers, but according to Schams, 140,000 mottiken, (each 273 square klafters,) yielding 4 eimers, that is, 560,000 eimers, or in good years above 1,000,000.	
Civil Transylvania by computation is believed to contain 178,500 joch of vineyard, and the produce at least .	3,640,000
The Transylvanian Military Frontier, together with the first Walachian and the Szekler hussar regiments, had, in the year 1813, 2295 *achtel* of vineyard, which bear, according to an average of 15 years, about 18,623 Transylvanian eimers, or somewhat more than	3,724
The *Slavonian Military Provinces* contained, according to Demian, in the year 1804, 11,640 joch, 847 square klafters of vineyard, with the average crop of . .	187,539
The Pontoneer Battalion District had in 1802, 1466 joch and 120 square klafters of vineyard, with a yearly produce of	7,482
The Banat Military frontiers contained, in the year 1804, 10,352 joch of vineyard, and gave	66,896

	Eimers of Lower Austria.
The whole *Croatian Military Frontier*, including both the district of Varasdin and Carlstadt, contained, according to Demian, in 1801, 14,887 joch, yielding . .	150,721
The *Dalmatian Government*, or Dalmatia, Ragusa, and Cattaro, together with the connected islands, have, by a probable computation, 42,700 joch of vineyard, and give annually	650,000
The island of Brazza alone affords in moderate years 100,000 *barillen.*	

The aggregate result of all these data gives, as the extent of the whole land devoted to the culture of wine in the Austrian territories, 1,582,364 joch, or 158·23 square miles; and as the annual average produce 32,873,971 eimers, *(or* 325,452,313 *gallons,)* consequently, the average of each joch is $20\frac{4}{5}$ eimers, *(or* 206 *gallons, being about* 140 *gallons to* 1 *English acre.)* That this result approaches very closely to the truth, can scarcely be hoped, as the very discordant estimates respecting the vintage of Hungary, and the totally unknown extent of vineyards in many of the provinces, render it very difficult to determine any thing satisfactorily. At the same time, I believe I have chosen the medium between the high and the low estimates, so that my results may fairly be adopted in the want of better data. *Si quid novisti rectius istis, candidus imperti ; si non, his utere mecum.* Horat.

STATEMENT

OF THE

EXTENT AND PRODUCE

OF THE

ARABLE LANDS IN AUSTRIA,

According to the Estimate of Blumenbach, 1816.

A metze is equal to about $1\frac{6}{8}$ *of a Winchester bushel.*

	Metzen of Lower Austria.
Bohemia yields as a yearly average from 1785; 1,874,241 metzen of wheat, 10,067,145 metzen of rye, 4,149,429 metzen of barley, and 8,278,546 metzen of oats,	24,369,361
The extent of arable land in this country is estimated at 2,828,427 joch, and taking away one-third as fallow land, 1,885,618 joch remain, whence the average of each joch will be, at least, 13 metzen.	
In *Moravia*, the average yearly produce was reckoned, in 1789, to be 1,581,101 metzen of wheat, 4,741,605 metzen of rye, 2,104,152 metzen of barley, 9,291,146 metzen of oats; altogether 17,718,004 metzen, on 1,714,942 joch of arable land, ...	17,718,004
After subtracting 571,647 joch for fallow, each of the remaining 1,143,295 joch yields an average of $15\frac{1}{2}$ metzen.	

Silesia has 356,520 joch of arable land, subtracting the third for fallow, and 237,680 joch remain; and assuming, on account of its inferior fertility, the average at only 10 metzen per joch, we obtain a total of . 2,376,800

In *Lower Austria*, the produce in grain has been estimated, by some authors, at 855,000 metzen of wheat, 1,450,000 metzen of rye, 256,000 metzen of barley, and 3,470,000 metzen of oats; altogether, 6,121,000 metzen. This, however, appears by far too little, for as, in the year 1789, the whole arable land amounted to 1,282,576 joch, 388 square klafters, which, after subtracting the fallow, would leave 855,051 joch, this estimate would give but 7 metzen to the joch. We will suppose the quantity of land annually devoted to grain only 600,000 joch, and taking the usual quantity of seed sown at 3 metzen per joch, and the average increase at six-fold, (See Blumenbach,) then subtracting the seed corn, we have, at least, a total produce of . . 9,000,000

The Province of Austria over the Enns, in which the arable land, according to the measurement of 1789, amounted to 655,274 joch, and by subtracting the fallow, is reduced to 436,849 joch, will yield at the average of 12 metzen the joch 5,242,188

Styria, in the year 1789, yielded from 610,417 joch of arable land, 664,811 metzen of wheat, 1,386,441 metzen of rye, 522,486 of barley, 1,906,825 of oats; altogether, 4,480,565 metzen. The estimate of Kindermann is still more accurate; according to which, the arable land of Styria yields 664,671 metzen of wheat, 1,364,008 of rye, 522,368 of barley, and 1,899,370 of oats; besides which, the fallow lands, and the marshy places, yield 824 metzen of wheat, 23,837 of rye, 773 of barley, and 8,481 of oats. Then the average is 11 metzen per acre, and the whole harvest 4,484,332

Carinthia had, in 1789; 205,608 joch of arable, and afforded, as its average annual crop, 154,690 metzen of

wheat, 557,966 of rye, 223,010 of barley, and 821,119 of oats, ... 1,756,785

So that subtracting the fallow, the remaining 137,072 joch averaged about $12\frac{8}{9}$ metzen.

Crain, at the same period, had 257,596 joch of arable land, and bore 256,918 metzen of wheat, 244,353 of rye, 370,679 of barley, 754,947 of oats; altogether, not more than 1,626,897

In this case, the average crop of each joch, in number 171,730, was not quite 10 metzen.

The exact extent of arable land in the *Coasting Provinces* is not well known, but cannot be less than 183,975 joch, which, after subtracting the fallow, is reduced to 122,650 joch, yielding at an average of 12 metzen per joch 1,471,800

We must endeavour to calculate the arable land of the *Lombardo-Venetian* kingdom, from the proportions which were found to exist in the Dukedom of Venice. This state had, in 310 square miles, nearly 800,000 joch of arable land, or to each square mile 2,580 joch; the whole kingdom, the extent of which is 781 square miles, may contain, at least, 2,014,980 joch; and, after subtracting 671,660 joch for the fallow, 1,343,320 will remain. Assuming the average crop of this fertile territory, like Moravia, at $15\frac{1}{2}$ metzen per joch, and the whole produce will be . . 20,821,460

Tyrol and Vorarlberg, according to a MS., but unauthenticated estimate, which, however, is rather too small than too large, contains 212,000 joch of arable land, and calculating the 141,334 joch which remain, after subtracting one-third for fallow, at only 12 metzen per joch, we have 1,696,008

Galicia, according to the estimates in the reign of Joseph II. contained 5,547,808 joch in tillage, 75,368 in fallow, and 21,024 joch of drained water courses, bearing crops, amounting altogether to 5,644,200 joch; and as the whole extent of territory was $1,632\frac{1}{2}$ square miles, this gives about

3,457 joch to the mile. We must now take away 106 square miles, which belonged to Poland, and supposing that, in each square mile of this fertile part, there were 4000 joch of arable, we shall have 424,000 joch to subtract from the former sum, leaving 5,220,200, and taking from this the fallow, 3,480,150 joch remain; and if we only suppose each to yield 10 metzen, the whole amounts to . . 34,801,500

The produce of *Hungary* is variously estimated. According to Szabó, the *peasants in Hungary have* 217,017 *sessions, or* 5,551,598 *joch. The clergy and nobles, the free cities and privileged bodies, an equal quantity.* We may, therefore, suppose 11,103,196 joch of arable land at 1200 square klafters, of which two-thirds or 7,402,130 joch are cultivated, one-half sown in autumn, the other in spring, from the autumnal crop 10 metzen, from the spring 12 metzen may be expected, and the whole produce would then be 81,000,000 metzen; we will, however, rather take the smaller estimate of Professor Schwartner, and with him adopt . . 60,000,000

According to the same method, we may calculate the produce of *Transylvania*, each square mile may here yield 12,000 metzen, (*the average in Hungary is* 12,262 *metzen to the square mile,*) and hence the 794½ square miles which Transylvania contains will yield about . . 9,534,000

In many of the districts of the *military frontiers*, the annual produce is known from official reports; thus, in the military *district of Varasdin* in 1801, the crop upon the 256,145 joch of arable land was only 621,021 Pressburg metzen. In the *Slavonian frontiers* in 1801, from 310,378 joch were obtained 1,169,757 Pressburg metzen. In the *district of the Pontoneers* in 1802, from 45,261 joch 306,985 Pressburg metzen were obtained. In the *Banat* in 1801, from 244,160 joch 978,259 metzen, and in the *Transylvanian frontiers* in 1807, from 122,907$\frac{9}{16}$ joch, 623,422½ metzen were obtained.

The *Carlstadt district* measures 282,244½ joch, and yields at the average of 3 metzen, including the fallow, 846,733 metzen; and if we estimate the arable land of the *Banat regiments* at 50,000 joch, with an average of four metzen, the harvest will be 200,000 metzen, and the whole military frontiers will give more than . . . 4,746,177

The produce of Dalmatia, Ragusa, Cattaro, and the islands belonging to this government, altogether 360½ square miles, is, on account of the insufficient data, difficult to estimate. Supposing that only 6000 metzen grow on the square mile, the whole government will give . . 2,163,000

The aggregate of all these sums gives as the annual produce of the Austrian empire in the best species of grain, wheat, rye, barley, and oats, a result of - - 201,808,312

Were we enabled to ascertain with precision the quantity of maize, (particularly abundant in Italy and the south of Hungary, and amounting in Sirmien alone to 720,000 metzen,) of rice, (in Italy and Hungary, and about Temeswar amounting to 17,000 or 18,000 centners,) of millet, (in Hungary, Carinthia, and Moravia,) of buck-wheat, (in Galicia alone, 2,978,710 metzen,) and of other species of grain, we might be able to speak with certainty how far the whole yearly harvest exceeds or falls short of 210,000,000 metzen; but assuming 8,191,678 metzen as the amount of these inferior products, and of the deficiencies in our other estimates, we may fairly state the annual yearly harvest of Austria at the round sum of 210,000,000 metzen, *(or* 360,000,000 *Winchester bushels.)*

ACCOUNT

OF THE

WILD BOY

DISCOVERED NEAR THE NEUSIEDLERSEE,

Officially extracted from the Register of Kapuvár.

Es ist im Jahre 1749, den 15 März durch die Kapuvárer-Fischer, Franz Nagy und Michael Molnar (ersterer lebte noch 1797) ein Knabe, der einem wilden Thiere recht sehr ähnlich, dessen Gestalt aber eine vollkommene Menschliche war, ohngefähr in seinem 10 Jahr gefangen, in das Kapuvárer-schloss eingebracht, und weil er gar nichts reden konnte, conditionate getauft. * Der Bube war nackt, hatte einen sehr runden kopf, kleine augen, wenig-eingewölbte nase, breiten mund, am ganzen körper, sogar am kopfe, keine gewöhnliche menschenhaut, sondern eine schuppenartige knotige rinde, überhaupt lang gestreckte Gliedmassen, besonders aber an händen und füssen doppelt lange finger und zehen ; un frass bloss Gras, heu und stroh, litt keine kleidung, und wenn er keine menschen um sich erblickte, so sprang er also gleich in das, um das schloss befindliche graben-wasser und schwamm gleich einem fische. Fast ein Jahr war er im schlosse, ass bereits gekochte speisen, liess sich auch ankleiden und fieng ziemlich an ein mensch zu werden, als eben aus diesem grunde die Trabanten ihm zuviel trauten, so dass dieses männchen unverhoft im verlohr gerathen, und nicht mehr gefunden worden ist. Vermuthlich ist er in die unweit vom schlosse vorbey fliessenden Raab gesprungen, und abermahl in den Hansag geschwommen.

Amtskanzeley Kapuvár am 8. August 1803.

* Anno 1749, d. 17. Martii baptisatus sub conditione puer demens repertus in sylva Stephanus circiter Annorum viii. cujus patrini Michael Hocksinger et Anna Maria Mesnerin.

A LIST

OF

THE WORKS OF BARON JACQUIN,

(Who died A. D. 1817,*) arranged in chronological order.*
(See page 75.)

1. Nicolai Josephi Jacquin Enumeratio Systematica Plantarum, quas in insulis Caribaeis vicinaque Americes Continente detexit novas aut jam cognitas emendavit. *Lugduni Batavorum, apud Theodorum Haak*, 1760.

2. Nicol. Josephi Jacquin Enumeratio Stirpium plerarumque quæ sponte crescunt in agro Vindobonensi montibusque confinibus. Accedunt observationum centuria et appendix de paucis exoticis. Cum tabulis aeneis. *Vindobonæ, impensis Joannis Pauli Kraus*, 1762.

3. Nicol. Josephi Jacquin Selectarum Stirpium Americanarum Historia, in qua ad Linnæanum systema determinatæ descriptæque sistuntur plantæ illæ, quas in insulis Martinica, Jamaica Domingo aliisque, et in vicina continentis parte observavit rariores ; adjectis iconibus in solo natali delineatis. *Vindobonæ, ex officina Krausiana*, 1763.

4. Nicol. Josephi Jacquin S. C. R. A. Majestati, in supremo de re metallica et monetaria Hungariæ inferioris Camergrafiatus dicto officio, a consiliis, Chemiæ metallurgicæ Professoris, et societatis Agriculturæ Styriacæ membri, Observationum Botanicarum iconibus ab auctore delineatis illustratarum, Tom. iv. *Vindobonæ, ex officina Krausiana*, 1764-1771.

5. Hortus Botanicus Vindobonensis, seu Plantarum rariorum quæ in horto botanico Vindobonensi, Augustissimæ Mariæ Theresiæ munificentia regia, in Universitatis patriæ excellens ornamentum, publicamque utilitatem exstructo coluntur, icones coloratæ et succinctæ descriptiones, cura et sumptibus Nicol. Jos. Jacquin Botanices Professoris. Tom. III. *Vindobonæ, Typis Leopold. Joann. Kaliwoda, Aulæ Imperalis typographi*, 1770-1776.

6. Flora Austriaca, sive Plantarum Selectarum in Austriæ Archiducatu sponte crescentium, icones ad vivum coloratæ, et descriptionibus ac synoni-

mis illustratæ, Tom. V. Opera et sumptibus Nic. Jos. Jacquin. *Viennæ Austriæ, Typis Leop. J. Kaliwoda Aulæ Imperialis typographi.*

7. Nicol. Josephi Jacquin Miscellanea Austriaca ad Botanicam, Chemiam, et Historiam Naturalem spectantia, cum figuris partim coloratis, Tom. II. *Vindobonæ, ex officina Krausiana,* 1778-1781.

8. Icones Plantarum rariorum, editæ a Nic. Jos. Jacquin, Botanices Professore, Tom III. *Vindobonæ,* 1781-1796, (with 648 plates.)

9. Eclogæ plantarum rariorum aut minus cognitarum quas ad vivum descripsit et iconibus coloratis illustravit, Jos. Fr. de Jacquin, Folio. *Vienna.* (In four fasciculi, with 40 plates.)

10. Stirpium Americanarum Historia, etc. etc. editio secunda picta, 1783-1784.

11. Nicol. Jos. Jacquin Collectanea ad Botanicam, Chemiam, et Historiam Naturalem spectantia, cum figuris, Tom. IV. et supplementum. *Vindobonæ, ex officina Wappleriana,* 1786-1796.

12. Oxalis Monographia iconibus illustrata, auctore N. I. Jacquin. *Viennæ,* 1794.

13. Plantarum rariorum Horti Cæsarei Schoenbrunnensis descriptiones et icones, opera et sumptibus N. I. Jacquin, Tom. IV. *Viennæ* 1797-1804.

14. Fragmenta Botanica figuris coloratis illustrata, ab anno 1800 ad annum 1809 per sex fasciculos edita, opera et sumptibus N. I. Jacquin. *Viennæ. Austriæ Typis Mathiæ Andreæ Schmidt, typographi Universitis,* 1809.

15. Stapeliarum in hortis Vindobonensibus cultarum descriptiones figuris coloratis illustratæ. Auctore N. I. L. Ba. Jacquin, ord. St. Stephani, R. H. equite, S. C. et C. R. Majestati et consiliis montanis, in Universitate Vindobonensi Professore Chemiæ et Botanices emerito, Academ. Imperial. Petropolitanæ, Reg. Londin. Berolin. Holm. Ups. Edinburg. Polat. Harl. &c. &c. socio. *Vindobonæ,* 1806. Fasciculi II.

16. Genitalia Asclepiadearum controversa. Auct. N. I. L. B. a Jacquin. Ord. St. Stephani equite, cum tabula colorata. *Viennæ, apud. C. F. Beck,* 1811.

To these may be added his elementary treatises on botany, chemistry, and an essay on the parts of fructification of the *Cycas circinalis.*

STATE

OF THE

GYPSIES IN SPAIN, 1817.

THE Gitanos, though found in all parts of Spain, are most abundant in the provinces to the south and south-east. In Valencia and Murcia they are very numerous, but Andalusia appears to be their favourite residence. Several reasons may be offered for their preference of these parts of the Peninsula. The first and most obvious is derived from the state in which, according to opinions generally received, the race to which the Gitanos belong entered Europe. The serenity of the air, the mildness of the winters, and the fertility of the soil in the southern provinces, were circumstances of no small importance to fugitives from an Eastern climate, destitute of the means of securing themselves from the inclemencies of the seasons, and unwilling to earn a laborious subsistence. Again, whilst under the dominion of the Moors, these southern provinces, in addition to the advantages of soil and temperature, offered all the inducements which the presence of a numerous and industrious population are calculated to supply. Andalusia alone contained the luxurious capitals of Seville, Cordova, and Granada; whilst Cadiz, Malaga, Jaen, Xerez, Antequera, Ronda, Osuna, and a multitude of smaller towns, were peopled with active and liberal inhabitants.

Admitting that from these circumstances originated the first settlement of the Gitanos in the south or south-east of Spain, their continued residence in the same provinces may require further explanation, as it is so much

at variance with the vagrant propensities which distinguish the family of Gypsies in other countries. Setting aside, however, the continuance of one of the inducements to original colonization, the advantages of soil and climate,—the superiority of wealth, which the south of Spain long enjoyed over the northern districts, was no slight motive for a protracted abode. When Spain became more settled, habit would have strengthened their attachment to the spots of their earliest residence. Every succeeding year has given this bond additional force :—but a still stronger inducement may be found in the character of the inhabitants of the south of Spain, which is such as to render Valencia, Murcia, and Andalusia, particularly adapted for the residence of a people possessing the character, and following the occupations, of the Gitano. The inhabitants of the two former provinces are lively, and fond of amusement ; but the Andalusian is, to a proverb, idle and thoughtless. Averse to labour, he will stand against a wall, sunning himself all day, wrapped up in his cloak, and scarcely giving himself the trouble to exhale the smoke of his paper segar. Careless of money, he seeks it but to spend, and devoted to dancing and music, would rather squander it in diversion, than purchase with it the necessaries of life. In the character of such a people, the Gitano finds a plentiful harvest, and is naturally more inclined to cultivate a field so productive, than to encounter the dry steadiness of the Biscayan, or the shrewd selfishness of the Catalan. That the disposition of the Gitano is more inclined to a fixed residence than that of the gypsey of other countries, is beyond a doubt. The generality are the settled inhabitants of considerable towns, and although the occupations of some necessarily lead them to a more vagrant life, the proportion is small who do not consider some hovel in a suburb as a home. " El dinero està en la ciudad—no en el campo"—" money is in the city, not in the country," is a saying frequently in their mouths.

Entertaining a strong aversion to the pursuits of husbandry, they are rarely found in villages ; but in the vilest quarters of every large town of the southern provinces, where the Alguacil may be supposed to pursue his avocation twice a-day, and the scavenger once a-year,—there are Gitanos always living together, and sometimes occupying whole barriers. In Cadiz, the quarters, " *de la Vina*" and " *Sta Maria,*" may almost be said

to be peopled by them alone. In Seville, they chiefly live in Triana, a large suburb separated by the Guadalquivir from the city. Ronda is a considerable seat of Gitano population. Malaga, Granada, Antequera, Osuna, Marchena, and Cartagena, in short, all the towns in this part of the Peninsula, contain great numbers. Seville is perhaps the spot in which the largest proportion is found.

The principal sedentary occupation of the Gitano, is the manufacture and sale of articles of iron. Their quarters may always be traced by the ring of the hammer and anvil, and many follow their business of forging and reforging industriously, and amass considerable wealth. An inferior class are exclusively venders of second-hand articles, either exposing their goods for sale at the doors of their dwellings, or, as is more frequently the case, seating themselves with tables and benches at the entrances of towns, or by the sides of frequented walks. A few, of a still lower order, wander through the streets, mending pots, and selling tongs, and other trifling articles. In Cadiz, they pursue a more lucrative business, which does not appear to have fallen into their hands in any other place. They are the butchers, and, as the trade is a monopoly, a wealthy Gitano of this class is by no means uncommon. A third business, which may be regarded as in some measure appropriated by the Gitanos, is that of the Matador of the Bull Plaza. The Toreros, at least of the south, are also for the greater part of the same race.

A fourth occupation is that apparently universal resource of knavery—horse-dealing, to which, from the general employment of asses and mules in this country, is added a similar trade of equal temptation. Indeed, from the comparatively little use made of the horse by the lower orders, with whom the Gitanos chiefly deal, the traffic in asses and mules may be regarded as taking the lead. Connected with this commerce is a trade, which, with the custom in which it originates, is probably peculiar to the Peninsula. It is here the practice, for ornament, and to prevent galling, and partly perhaps for the sake of cleanliness, to shave the hair of the asses and mules in various forms ; the usual mode being to cut it close upon the back and half-way down the sides, and to hog the mane. In asses, they shave the tail ; whilst the mules, from a more convenient fashion, derive the advantages of a large bunch of hair at the

extremity. From the tail, two or three raised lines generally run across the hams, and an intermediate row or two of lozenges completes the finery. The ears also are sometimes shaved; small tufts of hair being left on the tips. To make these decorations is the office of the Gitano; and, in the evening, it is impossible to pass the outskirts of a town where they are found, without seeing numbers of them engaged in this singular employment. It is highly amusing to observe the quickness and accuracy with which they manage their huge scissors,—one Gitano at the head, and another at the tail of the beast, which finds itself adorned, with a security not at all guaranteed by the rapidity of execution.

Another avocation of this race is that of the figure-dancer. Many of the performers in the theatres are Gitanos; and, whilst unengaged in their public duties, they frequently become private instructors in the evolutions of the bolero and fandango. In their music, they can scarcely be said to find a distinct employment. They rarely go beyond the guitar and the castanets,—the one the accompaniment of the dance,—the other an instrument of diversion rather than of profit. Some, however, there certainly are, who gain a livelihood by exercising their musical talents in the streets. Their singing is, in this particular, much on a level with their instrumental performances. Such may be regarded as a list of the regular occupations of the male part of the Gitano race. An individual is occasionally found selling quills or segars, or some other articles, in the streets, but this is by no means common. The lucrative avocations of the females are necessarily more limited. Dancing, singing, music, and fortune-telling, are the only objects of general pursuit. As dancers, they appear sometimes on the stage, but this only in the inferior theatres. They are also private instructresses, and sometimes find their way in this capacity into the houses of the more respectable classes of society. Others make their dancing, as well as singing, the means of procuring money, by exhibiting their talents in the streets. The trade of palmistry was formerly more lucrative than at present, but it still is to be regarded as one of the productive avocations of this singular people. In Seville, a few Gitanos are found, the makers and venders of an inferior kind of mats. Besides the Gitanos who may thus be regarded as the fixed inhabitants of towns, there is another class who lead a vagrant life,

residing chiefly in the forests and mountains, and known under the name of the "Montesinos," or mountaineers. These rarely visit towns, and live by fraud and pillaging. With these, however, must not be confounded a third class, who wander through the country, some as tinkers, others as dancers and singers, others as jobbers in asses and mules. The number of these, however, is extremely small. Probably in nine cases out of ten, the wanderers belong to the resident class, their vagrant life being merely temporary, caused by the dread of punishment, or some pecuniary difficulty.

The character of the gypsey is held throughout Spain in abhorrence and contempt; and without giving credit to many of the charges which are usually preferred against him, his depravity really appears sufficient to warrant the worst opinion. Where his occupation admits of knavery, the Gitano never allows an opportunity to escape him. As iron-workers, they are the general receivers and reforgers of articles of metal plundered by their associates; and, as the venders of second-hand goods of this class, the opportunities offered to theft by similar dealers in our own country, will give a tolerable idea of their services to society. As butchers, their knavery is notorious. Cheating in every mode,—taking bribes to provide some families with good meat, and obliging others to take inferior parts,—selling short weight, or making up the deficiency with bones or offal, they make full use of their monopoly, too frequently aided by the connivance of the servants of their customers. With regard to their avocations as Matador and Torero, little difficulty will be found in forming a pretty accurate opinion of their character, from that of the Roman gladiator, or the English prize-fighter, to whom they form a very similar class. Dissipated villains,—accustomed from their infancy to scenes of brutality,—receiving large sums for the casual exercise of their skill, and then passing long intervals in absolute idleness, their mode of life gives ample room for the pursuit of vice, strengthened every day by the examples of their parents and associates. As dealers in horses, &c. the Gitanos practise frauds not inferior to those which we find in the annals of English jockeyship,—concealing and applying temporary remedies to unsoundnesses,—lying beyond all measure,—and ringing the changes on excellence of qualities and lowness of price.

" A Gitano makes a dying ass gallop," was the figurative expression of an Andalusian. A more serious charge, however, connected with this part of their avocations, is that of stealing the animals in which they deal. If universal belief be authority, they certainly must be found guilty of the charge;—and this has been assigned as an additional reason for the preference which they give to the traffic in asses and mules; these animals generally belonging to the inferior classes, from whom less is to be apprehended; and being, at the same time, from their lowness of price and general use, more readily sold and exchanged than horses. We now come to the character of the Gitanos as dancers, singers, and instrumental performers. Those who appear as public dancers on the stage may be regarded as occupying the highest station. The character of the Gitano as a dancer, is such as is naturally produced by the union of propensities, which we have seen developed in his other avocations, with the laxity of morals apparently essential in all countries to this class of performers, heightened by the character of lasciviousness which belongs, in so eminent a degree, to the national dances of Spain. The fandango and bolero, when performed in the most modest manner, may be deemed exceptionable, at least according to the rigid ideas of our northern climes; but, when Gitanos are the performers, this term becomes far too mild. Some of the more respectable of those who follow the employment of public dancing, or giving private instructions, are occasionally ready to satisfy the curiosity of strangers, or gratify the fancy of the already initiated, by exhibiting gypsey dancing. In these, indecency is carried to its highest pitch. As singers and musicians, the reputation of the two sexes is equally bad; and as practisers of the science of palmistry, the English and Spanish fortune-teller are much on a par. Such is the character of the Gitano in all the pursuits of his stationary life. In his vagrant occupations he continues the same being; the increased or diminished frequency of opportunity alone placing a limit to vice. The " Montesinos" are confessed by the town gypsies themselves to be a savage and barbarous race, scarcely knowing, and never regarding, the difference betwixt right and wrong.

There are some additional traits, which must be included in the

sum total of the excellencies of the Spanish gypsey. The first and leading propensity of this people is to obtain money. The only means of effecting this which they shun is labour; swindling, pilfering, and begging, possessing in their estimation a great superiority to so inconvenient a method. If a stranger enter into conversation with a Gitano, he must expect to be immediately asked for money. The butcher, blacksmith, and tinker, cheat without compunction. Dancer is but another word for beggar; and the fortune-teller has always Peru and Mexico at command. A second quality of the Gitano is cowardice, and with this comes its usual companion, duplicity. From whatever cause it arise, whether from native baseness, or from the abject situation which they hold in society, the Spanish gypsies are by no means a courageous race. Scarcely any abuse or injury will excite the resistance of a Gitano against a determined antagonist. He will return a torrent of ill language, but his inclination to further revenge is checked by the apprehension of danger. He does not, however, easily forget an offence, and no man is more ready to use the knife, when free from the danger of resistance or of subsequent discovery. O'Reilly, whilst governor of Cadiz, wishing to improve the state of the public markets, established a number of Irish butchers. This, as may naturally be conceived, was not very agreeable to the Gitanos, who had exclusively exercised the trade, and in a short time not one of the foreigners survived, and the business returned into the hands of its old proprietors.

From the general charge of cowardice, we must, however, exempt bull-fighters, who certainly pursue an avocation of no trifling hazard; and not long ago, a singular instance occurred, of a Gitana being taken fighting with a party of robbers, who had long infested Estremadura. But of all the modes in which gypsey cowardice betrays itself, in none is it found more extravagant than in their superstitious dread of a corpse. Availing himself of this remarkable trait in their character, an Andalusian farmer was accustomed to free himself from the intrusion of these vagabonds, by assenting to their request of a night's lodging in his out-houses, and desiring at the same time that they might be taken to the room where "the man had died the preceding night,"—a direction which was always followed by the hasty departure of his unwelcome guests.

It has been said, that the Gitano is remarkable for fidelity to his engagements.—If a gypsey's word be received as evidence, the assertion is readily confirmed; but certainly the general impression is, that they are a most faithless race. Whatever they may be on particular occasions of confidence, in common intercourse they are unblushing liars. Charges of promiscuous intercourse and incest have been brought against the Gitano; but these seem totally unsupported by proof. To speak of them as common practices, is certainly to exaggerate depravity. Prostitution is, it will be readily believed, pretty common amongst the females, and Gitanas are sometimes found among the higher orders of women of the town.

In regard to the general manners and customs of life, the Gitano differs little from the lower order of Spaniards. Equally temperate, except under occasional temptation, and, if possible, still more regardless of neatness and comfort, he lives in the same indifference to the past and the future, only distinguished by being more debased and uninformed.

The Gitanos generally intermarry with persons of their own race. This is, however, by no means invariably the case, nor does its frequency arise from any national prejudice or regulation. It is merely the effect of a similarity of tastes and habits, and of the abject rank which they hold in society. Unless in the imagination of Cervantes, a Spanish and Gitano union has probably never been very well cemented. The marriages of the more opulent Gitanos are celebrated with great festivity; and, when conducted in full form, the ceremonial is curious. The intended marriage being made known, a procession is formed by all the Gitano friends and neighbours of the happy couple; some on foot, but the greater part in coaches and calesas, dressed in their gayest clothes, and accompanied by music. On their return from church, the bride is seated at one extremity of a room, with the unmarried girls by her; the bridegroom on the right, and the father and mother, or those who perform their office, on the left. The male part of the company stand in the corners singing and playing on the guitar. About one o'clock the oldest matron, accompanied by others advanced in years, conducts the bride into the bed-room, which, according to the custom of

Spain, is usually a small chamber without a window, opening into the general apartment. *Tunc vetula, manu suâ sponsæ naturalibus admotâ, membranam vulvæ ori oppositam unguibus scindit, et cruorem à plagâ fusum linteolo excipit.* The Gitanos without make a loud noise with their whistles, and the girls, striking the door, sing the following couplets, or some other to the same :—

> " Abra vñd la puerta S^nr Joaquin
> Que le voy à vñd à poner un pañuelito
> En las manos que tienen que llorar
> Toditas las callis."

The bride then returns from the chamber, accompanied by the matrons, and the new married couple are placed upon a table, where the bride dances, *et coram astantibus linteolum, intemerati pudoris indicium, explicat ;* (Compare *Deuteronom.* Ch. xxii. and the authors referred to by Haller, *Elementa Physiolog.* Tom. VII. p. ii. *note h ;* to which add *Leo, Descr. Africæ, lib.* iii. p. 126, copied in *Purchas's Pilgrims*, II. 794. Niebuhr's *Travels*, II. p. 216 ; and Jos. Abudacni *seu Barbati Historia Jacobitarum seu Coptorum.—Oxon.* 4to, p. 21,) whilst the company, throwing down their presents of sweetmeats, &c. dance and cry, " Viva la honra." The festivities now begin, and the party eat, drink, dance, and sing till night, when the groom is left in quiet possession of his bride. A birth is marked by no peculiar ceremonies ; but if it take place in a wealthy family, it is seized as a good opportunity for feasting and dancing. After the death of a Gitano, the friends and relations seat themselves round the deceased, and weep and recount the history of his life. The entrance of the bearers is the signal for renewed lamentations. To these, whom they call " Leones," they have a great aversion. Whilst they cry " Fuera Leones—Mal fen sean tus cuerpos," the females cling, crying, to the body, till forced away. Widows never marry again, and are distinguished by mourning veils and black shoes, made like those of a man ;—no slight mortification, in a country where the females are so remarkable for the beauty of their feet.

No one exceeds the Gitano in the appearance of religion, but the day or Jesus Nazareno, or Good Friday, is the day they more particularly observe.

The older women often accompany the procession bare-footed, and others of the race beg the aid of the pious, covered with purple vests, and with white handkerchiefs or hoods on their heads, representing the Jews. "La Virgen de la soledad" is, in a peculiar degree, an object of their devotion.

No gradations of rank are found amongst the Gitanos. Greater or less affluence forms the only distinction.

Their mode of telling fortunes much resembles that of our English gypsies; the prophetess crossing the hand with her fee, and dealing out lovers and good crops of olives and water melons, according to the liberality of the inquirer into futurity.

The external manners of the Gitano correspond with his characteristic duplicity. All is smoothness in their address to their superiors. A lisp, by constant habit, becomes in them almost unavoidable, and when treating with a stranger, they assume a gentle smile, which is no slight assistant to their frauds. As a farther engine of deception, they make use of the most fulsome compliments. "Cara de Angel" is one of their favourite expressions of endearment, and the novice, who finds himself in a place of Gitano amusement, is certain to hear abundance of compliments, in the observations which his companions make to each other, when sure that they will not escape his ear. From the character of Gitano manners have arisen in Spanish the words "Gitanear,"—to coax, wheedle, flatter.—"Gitanada"—"Gitaneria"—substantives from the same root. This suavity of manners lasts, however, only during the influence of interest. Amongst themselves, they are perfect savages, and a stranger may soon put an end to their politeness, by disappointing their hopes of gain, or offending their pride. The most effectual mode of doing the latter is to shew marks of disgust. This soon produces a change of manner. Conscious of their filth, and feeling their degraded situation, they pour forth torrents of abuse. Their volubility is always extreme, and there is a peculiarity in their tone of voice, the sounds appearing to roll over something in the mouth, with a good deal of the Andalusian lengthening of final tones. Altogether, their mode of speaking more resembles that of the lower orders in the neighbourhood of Xerez de la Frontera, than that of any other people. The curses of a Gitano, when enraged,

are often whimsical. "Que seas soldado aborrecido del sargento primero." *May you be a soldier, and hated by the serjeant-major. May your waistcoat have a belly in it, which bursts with garvansos,* are instances.

In complexion and features, the peculiarities of the Gitano are very much those which mark the race of English gypsies. Their colour is generally a shade darker than that of the tawny Andalusian, whilst the slightly hooked nose, and jet black eyes, and hair, equally resemble those of the inhabitants of Norwood; though less remarkable in a country, whose inhabitants more generally possess these external characters, than in our own. The females in general are masculine, and hard featured, but striking instances to the contrary are occasionally met with. There is a peculiarity in the face of the family, common both to male and female, which allows no one to mistake them when once familiar with their appearance. In form, the Gitano is generally well made, and endued with a considerable share of strength and agility. Amongst the women are many beautiful figures, completely of the Spanish mold, which their possessors do not neglect to exhibit with all the characters of Spanish female display.

The dress of the Gitano, whilst pursuing his common occupations, is merely that of the lower orders of Spaniards. Their more peculiar costume has the name of the "majo" dress, used by them in their dancing and festivities, consisting of a short jacket, waistcoat, and breeches, generally of coloured silk, with a profusion of ornaments of buttons, tinsel, and ribbons, with which they are dizened out, according to the fancy or wealth of the wearer. The hair is ornamented with a bag, and the shoes with huge roses. Such a costume must, however, not be regarded as appropriated by the Gitano. It is the dress of the bull-fighter and the stage dancer; and in the south of Spain, is much used in common life, with some necessary modifications. The female dress consists of a gown, very frequently of coloured silk, loaded with tinsel and embroidery, the bottom generally formed by a row of large vandykes. Raised high in the middle of the head; the black locks of the Gitana are loaded with artificial flowers, and behind is stuck a large bunch of ribbons. Round the face hang a row of long thin curls, which do not at all improve the coarse and disgusting features over which they often fall. Rings, chains, and necklaces, chiefly of gold, are strung on in profusion, and these ornaments are often of very considerable value.

With regard to the situation which the Gitano holds in society, it is impossible for any class to be lower in general estimation. The meanest Spaniard looks upon them with contempt. The only countenance they receive is from some of the higher class, who consider Gitanos and bull-fighting much as many in England do stage-coachmen and pugilism. In Andalusia particularly, it is a kind of fashion amongst the inferior nobility to Gitanise themselves to a certain extent, imitating their manners, using their phrases, and entering into all their diversions, for which, as long as their liberality continues, they have the honour of being treated with the same familiarity as genuine Gitanos.

As to the political state of the Gitanos, they now enjoy the privileges of Spaniards, but it was not till the reign of Charles III. that they obtained these rights. At the same time, it was made penal to call them Gitanos, the name being declared merged in that of "*Castellanos nuevos.*" Previously to this epoch, we find many laws enacted against him. One, made in 1494, ordains them to be banished for ever from Spain, and gives them as slaves to those who may take them. The words which designate them are these: "Declaramos ser vagabundos quanto à la dicha pena los Egypcianos y caldereros estrangeros que por leyes y pragmaticas destos Reynos están mandados echar dèl y los pobres mendigantes sanos que contra la orden dada en la nueva pragmatica piden y andan vagabundos." This law was renewed by Charles V. in 1525, 1528, and 1534, and again by Philip II. in 1560.

In another, the same penalties are enacted, unless they chuse some settled habitation and employment, declaring, that if, after sixty days, they are found without having complied with these conditions, the punishment for the first offence will be a hundred stripes and perpetual banishment; for the second, the loss of their ears and perpetual banishment; for the third, perpetual captivity to those who may take them; revoking, at the same time, all securities and provisions in their favour. It stands thus. "Mandamos à los Egypcianos que andan vagabondos por nuestros reynos y señorios con sus mugeres y hijos que desde el dia que esta ley fuere notificada y pregonada en esta nuestra corte y en las villas y lugares y ciudades que son cabezas de partidos hasta sesenta dias siguientes cada uno dellos vivan por oficios conocidos que mejor supieren aprovecharse, estando de estado en los lugares adonde acordaren asen-

tar á tomar vivienda de señores á quien sirvan y los den lo que hubieren menester y no anden jamas juntos vagando per nuestros reynos como lo facen ó dentro de otros sesenta dias primeros siguientes salgan de nuestros reynos y no vuelvan á ellos en manera alguna só pena que si en ellos fueren hallados ó tomados sin oficios ó sin señores juntos, pasados los dichos dias queden á cada uno cien azotes par la primera vez y los destierra perpetuamente destos reynos, y por la segunda vez que los corten las orejas, &c. y los tornen á desterrar como dicho es, y por la tercera vez que sean cautivos de los que los tomaren por toda su vida," &c.

A subsequent law somewhat moderated the rigour of these ordinances, declaring, that Gitanos who should return from banishment or pursue a wandering life, should be condemned to the gallies for six years, which time expired, they should return to their own country. Other laws have been directed against them as stealers of cattle, &c. " Que por ningun caso puedan tratar en compras ni ventas de ganados mayores ni menores, lo qual hayan de guardar só pena de muerte."

The privileges granted by Charles III. destroyed, however, these previous ordinances. At present, the laws directed against vagrants may be regarded as particularly pressing upon the wandering part of the Gitanos, and in the Castilles, Navarre, and the Free provinces, various enactments touching residence, &c. amount to little less than a prohibition.

The opinion of the Gitanos, with respect to their origin, is, that they came from Egypt, and such is the idea generally entertained in Spain. In law, except when from their habits they are called "Abigeos" and "Quatreros," or, cattle stealers, they are termed " Egypcianos," though, in the edict issued in 1619, the opinion of their *not* being a separate people appears to have been adopted. " Que pues no lo son de nacion, quede perpetuamente este nombre y uso confundido y olvidado."

That many Spaniards should have joined their community, is a natural supposition, but that the stock is the same as that of the other inhabitants of the country, is by no means admissible. Laws respecting them were passed as early as 1494. Particular attempts to civilize them do not appear to have been made.

LIST OF WORDS

USED BY THE GYPSEY, GITANO, AND CYGANI.

THE following short vocabulary will be found to contain words and sentences collected from the *Gypscy* of England, the *Gitano* of Spain, and the *Cygani* of Hungary. They have been obtained in a great degree independently of each other, and therefore do not always include the same expressions. The correspondence is frequently very strong, particularly between the languages of the *Gypscy* and the *Cygani*, yet even in these, many words will be found to have little similarity. The instances of agreement between the *Gitano* and either of the others are much more rare. A difference of this kind must necessarily be expected, supposing it proved that the languages of the three people were originally the same, from the different circumstances under which these tribes are found, and because the whole list, except a few of the *Gitano* expressions, has been collected through oral communications. This, indeed, though it admits of less accuracy, might have been preferred, as throwing an obstacle in the way of intentional misrepresentation, even if it had been possible to obtain a written vocabulary from this ignorant and volatile people.

The Spanish words which will be found intermingled, are distinguished by italics, and it is believed, that the remaining words in the same column are of the genuine language of the Gitano.

By comparing the words in this vocabulary with the Hindoo, many remarkable coincidences occur in addition to those furnished by Grellman, *e. g.*

COW.—Gourumin, *Eng. Gyp.* Gourumin, *Hung.* Goru, *Hindoo.*—OLD WOMAN.—Puromane-che, *Eng.* Puri, *Span.* Peer, *Hind.* It is perhaps worthy of remark, that an OX is Gouro, *Eng.* Gouro, *Hung.* and that OLD MAN is Puro, *Span.*—SOUL, Ochi, *Span.* Jee, Jevo, *Hind.*—BED. Choripez, *Span.* Charpauee. *(Bedstead.) Hind.*—FACE, Mui, *Eng.* Mooh, *Hind.*—DUCK, Beretzi, *Eng.* Haunse, *Hind.*—WORM, Kirma, *Eng.* Keerah, *Hind.*—FORK, Kassoni, *Eng.* Kastoni, *Hung.*

Kaunta, *Hind.*—Scissors, Catsaw, *Eng.* Qainchee, *Hind.*—Knife, Churi, *Eng.* Churi, *Span.* Schluri, *Hung.* Chorah and Choree, *Hind.*—Drunk, Motto, *Eng.* Matocino, *Span.* Mud-Walla, *Hind.*—Red, Olajo, *Span.* Laul, *Hind.*—Salt, Lone, *Eng.* Lon, *Span.* Lohn, *Hung.* Loon, *Hind.*—Key, Klesin, *Eng.* Clachi, *Span.* Klucho, *Hung.* Koonjee, *Hind.*

In any future attempt to trace the similarity between the Gypsey and Hindoo languages, particular attention should be given to such words as belong to those habits and employments of the inferior Hindoo casts, which still seem to form part of the peculiar manners and avocations of the gypsies. The forging of iron, basket-making, skinning animals not killed for food, the care of cows, magic, slight of hand, palmistry, music, &c.

In such words as snow, boots, hat, friar, &c. in short, in all which refer to objects unknown in Hindostan, no *direct* agreement can, of course, be found with Eastern expressions, and but little is to be expected between words respectively used to signify these things amongst the various tribes of European gypsies. Grellman, among various other similar instances, would compare the Hindoo for *a pound* and *a mile* with the gypsey; now, these must mean very different things, or the Hindoo words are probably of modern formation, and could not have been brought into Europe by the gypsies in 1417. The adaptation of Eastern words to European ideas, however, seems frequent, as Rajah, *Gypsey*, for Lord or Prince; but how came the *gypsey* Banduk, a Musket, to resemble so closely the *Hindoo* Bundooq? and from what *original* word are the similar sounds of Kalngeree, *Eng.* Cangri, *Span.* Kalíngeri, *Hung.* all signifying a Church, derived? Vocabularies formed of the gypsey languages, used among their different tribes, might probably throw much light upon the era in which these people quitted the east, and even on the route by which they entered Europe.

Ludolf, in the seventeenth century, collected from certain wandering tribes which he met in Æthiopia and Nubia, a vocabulary of thirty-eight words. These were so fortunately selected, that a counter-part has, in almost every instance, offered itself, both from the language of Hindostan, and from that of the European gypsey. This fact recalls an observation made by Sir William Jones, though it may bear but little upon the question,—that the *Ancient Egyptian* and the *Sanscrit* are probably the same.

VOCABULARY.

English.	*English Gypsey.*	*Spanish Gypsey.*	*Hungarian Gypsey.*
Head	Chero	Gerol, Chichi	
Eyes	Jack, *pl.* Jackai	Sacais, Clises	
Nostrils, or Nose	Nack	Naclás	
Teeth	Danow	Piños	
Mouth	Mui, Moi	Mui', Coba	
Hands	Wast	Baés	
Feet	Piro	Pinrés, Pinreles	
Breasts	Mukso	Chicais	
Face	Mui	Fila	
Flesh	Mas	Brinza	Mas
Bone	Keleso	Cocal	
Fingers	Wangisto	Baíes	
Tongue	Chiv	Mui'	
Body	Trupos	Trupo	
Soul		Ochi	
Heart	Sic	Otembrolilló	
Arms		Murcios	
Limb		Barocal, Baro	
Loins		Cuadriles	
Blood	Rat		
Milk	Tud		
Ear	Kan		
Cheek	Tscham		
Neck	Mer		
Back	Dummo		
Belly	Per		
Leg	Herroi, Herree		
Knee	Tschanga		
Nail	Nai		

English.	*English Gypsey.*	*Spanish Gypsey.*	*Hungarian Gypsey.*
Liver	Buko		
Hair	Bal		
Hand		Vendo	
Right Hand	Tascho wast		
Left Hand	Zezro wast		
God	Devel, Dievla	Deber, Otebér	Dievla
Father	Dade	Bato	Dade
Mother	Dai	Dai, Bata	Trade
Children, male	Chavais	Chabes } Chinoris	Chavos
female	Chaori	Chais }	Chaori
Young Woman	Rakli		
Girl		Gachi, Chai	
Little Girl		Rum	
Wife	Romni	Chai romandiñada	
Boy		Chupeno	Chavor
Moor		Carajai	
Soldier	Kuremangero	Jundunar	
Friar		Derajāi	
Old Man	Purogero	Puró	
Old Woman	Puromanesche	Purí	
Man	Manush	Jel	Manush
Gentleman	Herrai	Gerrés	
Officer		Dorāi	
Constables		Chinées, Chineles	
A Gitana (or female Gypsey)	Romani chi	Calli	
A Gitano of lowest Class		Carendo	
—— of higher		Faraon	
Preacher	Raschei	Deajāi	Rashei
Servant or Boy	Raklo	Chavo	
Woman	Gauge, Romni		Romni
Woman of Honour		Pachiballi	
Butcher	Masengero	Chindomel, Chindoma	
Executioner		Buchí	
The Blind	Corodo goidgi	Chindoquendos	
The Dead		Mulés	
An Enemy		Mengui	Avil
The Devil	Beng	Mengui *Mayor*	Beng
Angels		Majariges	Angeli
Saints		Majaros	

English.	*English Gypsey.*	*Spanish Gypsey.*	*Hungarian Gypsey.*
The Virgin		Majoril	
A Friend or Companion		Quirobó	
Blackguard		Pirandon	
Toad-eater, or Bloodsucker		Manguela	
Meat		Brinza	
Wine	Mor	Mor, Morlaló	Mor
Cheese	Kil	Tiró	
Butter	Kal		
Salt	Lone	Lon	Lohn
Brandy		Payagüeris, Penascarol	
Vinegar	Schud		Schud
Sugar	Gudlo		
Game		Querorro	
Water	Pani	Paní	Pani
Bread	Mauro, Malo	Manro, Tató	Malo
Bacon	Balowas	Balichó, Valembal, Valevale	
Broth	Zimin		
Pudding	Gojee		
Fat	Tuliben		
Hat	Stadi	Estuche	Scheroli
Shirt	Gad, Gadaw		
Breeches	Heretzi, Holowai	Jalares	Holef
Stockings	Holove, Holef	Cañas	
Buttons		Camarinchos	
Boots	Skoni		Kerhi
Waistcoat	Bangeri		Bruslegohilo
Mantle	Plasta		Karialo
Drawers		Jalareschinoris	Soostem
Handkerchief		Lil	
Pocket-Handkerchief	Deklo		
Neck-Handkerchief	Poshnechosh		
Shoes	Chacan, Choik	Clacos, Carkos	
Coat	Choko		
Silk	Keski		

English.	*English Gypsey.*	*Spanish Gypsey.*	*Hungarian Gypsey.*
Birds	Chericlo	Cluchillos	
Hare	Kanivoro		
Rabbit	Schoschi		
Snake	Tsap		
Cats	Matschkai	Chichais	
Cow	Gourumin		Gourumin
Ox	Gouro		Gouro
Swine	Balo		Balo
Goose	Papi		Papi
Hen	Kani		Kani
Cock	Bascheno		Kakaspilo
Turkey			Dillini
Duck	Heretzi		
Ass	Mila, Meila	Juné	
Louse	Jew		
Flea	Putzhum		
Worm	Kirmo		
Dog	Chuquil, Tukel, Jukli (fem.)	Chuquel, es.	
Horse	Gra, Gri		
Small Bird	Bittachericle		
Prison	Starapen	Estarebel	
House	Kehr	Que	Kehr
Church	Kahngeree	Cangrí	Kahngeri
Small Cottage	Bitta Kehr		Purini gunihova
Village	Gal		
Lightning	Dugilla		
Death	Meriben	Muló	
Night	Vachi		
Heaven		Chimusplano, Otarpe	
Money	Lövō, Lowo	Parné, Jandeles	
Sun	Kam	Ocán	Kam
Moon		Chimutra	
Light		Sende	
Weather		Chiró	
Wind		Parojil	
Fire	Jeg, Jog	Llague	Jeg
Rain	Brischin		Brischin
Cold	Barajil		Gris
Year	Bersch		Bersh

English.	*English Gypsey.*	*Spanish Gypsey.*	*Hungarian Gypsey.*
Darkness		Sinjuruné	
Iron	Traster, Trast		Trast
Copper			Harkum
Silver	Rup		Rup
Gold	Sonokai		Rup
Coal	Wangar		
Mud	Schik		
Stone	Bar		
The Earth	Puh		
Country	Temn		
Tree	Ruk		
Grass	Chor		
Vineyard			Drachi
Straw	Pul		
Onion	Punim		
Cabbage	Spak		
Cherry	Kero		
Nut	Peneka		
Wheat	Give		Give
Rye			Rogohilo
Maize			Bopo
Wood	Hascht		
Leaf	Patrin		
Segar		Prajo, Prajardi	
The Gallows		Ene	
Guitar		Rapañi	
Book	Kemvah		Kemvah
A Letter	Bock		Lile
Pen or Feather	Porengri, Por		Por
Table	Mischelli		Ostollo
Seat or Chair	Skami		Skami
Basin			Koro
Cup	Plak		Charoro
Tobacco Pipe	Tuviali Swegli		Tuviali
Box	Mokto		Mosto
Coffee Pot			Kerscho
Fork	Kassoñ		Kastoni
Spoon	Rohi		Rohi
Window	Hev		Bloko
Mirror	Depesemengro		Tiekro

English.	*English Gypsey.*	*Spanish Gypsey.*	*Hungarian Gypsey.*
Oven			Kaplogelli
Bottle	Wahlin		
A slap on the Face	Tschammedini		
A Multitude	Boot		
Hole	Hev		
Mile	Meja		
Age	Puro		
Diligence	Sik		
Hunger	Bukelo		
Thirst	Truzhilo		
Sleep	Sowawa		
Cough	Shil		
Labour	Butin		
An Answer	Lav		
Violin	Mashumangri		
Ring	Wangustri		
Axe	Tober		
Sword	Horō		
Kiss	Schumoben		
String	Dori		
Smoke	Thu		
Beauty	Richini		
Debt	Kamawa		
A Knapsack	Goro		
Scissors	Catsaw	Clachas	
The Cross		Frujun	
Dinner		Jalipen, Guillopa, Guirapa	
Stick	Koscht (pl.) Koschtoi		
Rod	Ran (pl.) Ranjoi		
Fun Frolic	Pias	Jojana	
Word or Expression		Quirinda	
Sunday	Kurhai	Chomi	
Pistol		Pizcavari	
Roaster		Calafresa	
Fear	Swa		
A Key	Klesin	Clachi	Kluco
A Bed	Vadros	Choripez	Vodror
A Razor		Cerdaṅi	

English.	*English Gypsey.*	*Spanish Gypsey.*	*Hungarian Gypsey.*
A Knife	Churi	Churi, Valdeo	Schluri
Drunk	Motto	Matocino	
Little	Bitte	Chinori	
Pretty		Jucal	
Ugly		Chungalli	
Dead		Merado	
Lost		Perdobal	
Despicable		Puripé	
Red		Olajó	
Good	Coshko	Misto	
Poor		Chororro	
Brave	Coshko		
Naked	Nango		
Dark	Raté		
Great	Baro		
Crooked	Bango		
Wet	Kindo		
New	Nevo		
Black	Kalo		
Hot	Tato		
Cold	Chilri		
I love		Camelo	
I beat		Tendino	
Thou payedst		Penalaste	
He pays		Pena	
He speaks in gitano		Chanela *en* caló	
To speak		Anaquerar, chanelar	
To sell goods		Prasarar	
To hold or have		Abelar	
To understand		Pincharar	
To weep		Orobelar	
To owe		Penar	
To seize		Apandar	
To give		Endinar	
To sharpen		Pirabar	
To hook on		Jonjabar	
To affect not to understand		*Hacerse* lipendé	
To eat		Tagelar, Terelar	
To kill		Marelar	

English.	*English Gypsey.*	*Spanish Gypsey.*	*Hungarian Gypsey.*
To fiddle	Boschemengero		
To dance	Kellepen		
Leave him alone		Vucalé	
Be off		Nicovelaté	
Indeed		*De* broge	
Yes, certainly		Chipé	
Without deceit or ceremony		*Sin* choripen	
Not or no	Kek		

English.	*Spanish Gypsey.*
Troubles kill me	*Las* Ducais *me* marelan
Sit by me	Vastela*te* cate
I know not what you tell me	Ochanaba mangue *loque* chile
Run! run	Prastarela
Do not weep mother for my health	*No* orobeles *mi* dai *por la* estipen *de la* mangue
Shut the door	Apande *vmd* el bundal
Come hither	Abele *vmd* acoté
Go! begone	Naguese *vmd*
Give me a segar	Endine *me un* prajo
Come to eat	Abele *vmd a* jamar
I am going to sleep	*Voy á* sobelar
He is going to marry	*Se va á* romandiñar
Let us go and deceive him	Naguemos *á* jonjobarle
You are a thief	Amcabado *vmd*
It rains	Abela *la* pani
This girl is very wild	*Esta* chai *es* lili
To be very hungry	Haber *el* boqui *de un* dever terero
What do I see?	*Que* engispo?
The money was given to the girl	*Se ha* endiñado *el* parné *á la* chai
Get out of my sight	Gillate *de mi que no te pueda* indicar
Do not leave me, I fear to go hence alone	*No se* gille *vmd porque* terelo *ir de esta* cocorri
In the country of the blind, he who has one eye is a chief	*En el* chen *de los* chindoquendos el que avela *un* sacai *es un* clai
Marry this fellow	Romandiñate *con este* chavo
A common curse is, "May the devils eat you"	*Malos* menguis *te* jamelan
Also	Mal fen *tengas tu cuerpo* Mal fen *tengas*.

The following is a couplet of a Gitano song:

Del estarebel *me sacan*
Montadito en un juné
Yme van acurrubando
Por las calles catorré.

They take me from the prison mounted on an ass, and flog me through the the streets.

A Gitano was heard to make use of the following sentence, on seeing some constables who were pursuing her son:

"Chavo gillate *que vieneu los* Dorais *á cogerte Date con los* carcos *en el* Buerengi."—(literally) "Be off boy—The officers are coming to take you—Give your shoes against your breech."

English.	*English Gypsey.*	*Literally.*
I eat much bread	Me oium, boot, mauro	
Thou, wife, eatest much cheese	Du, chi, oias, boot kal	
He eats no butter	Jov ne oila, kek, kill	
We all of us eat eggs	Soimende, oaim, jarroi	
Ye all of you eat fish	Jov soimende oias macho (or) machai (pl.)	
I shall eat no food to-day	Kek, da oimas, bitta, haben, sako, devis	Not, shall eat, little, food, all this day
Thou wilt eat a good supper to-night	Oisa du, kosliko haben, akai, rat	Thou wiltst eat a good food this night
I will eat breakfast to-morrow	Jov oila, callako, haben	You will eat, to-morrow, food
We will eat cabbage	Soimende, oissa, schach	All of us, we will eat, cabbage
I go to the fair	Jov emenga, keti, varingera	I go, to, the fair
The birds sing to-day	Chericlo give to dives (or) Chericloi, givella, ako dives	The birds sing this day
Was that once a house	Sesso dove, kere, jekos	Was that, a house once
The country looks well now	Bisto dikelo temn akonau	Well, looks, country, now
The trees will be dressed bye and bye	Ee rukoi, rudai, kennessij	
I dress myself	Rudoman me kukero	
What sort?	Sair sortisi?	
What country?	Savo temn?	

English.	*English Gypsey.*	*Literally.*
A box full of tobacco	Mochto, paudo, touvelo	
The fingers of the right hand	O tascho wast, es kee wangesto	
My wife and daughter	Miro romni an mi chi	
Catch the horse	Leo gri boudic	
I have taken the horse into the field	Chidom, leo gri, dre, puv	
The horse has eaten all the grass	Soi, chor, oias, ogri	All, grass, eaten, the horse
Have you seen the saddle of that horse?	Dictani, egreski, boshtoi	Have you seen, that horse, the saddle?
I go to see	Jah dictove	
Give this corn to the horse, wife (or) sir	Deh, acove, a gresti giv chi (or) ri	Give this to the horse, corn, wife, or sir
Take the oats from the horse wife	Leo giv, away, gresti, chi	The oats away from the horse, wife
I saw six horses in the road	Dictom, chov, gri edou, drum	I saw six horses in the road
I saw the heads of six horses	Dictom, mai chov, gri, cheroi	I saw six horses heads

English.	*Hungarian Gypsey.*	*English Gypsey.*
We pray	Som Molina	
To pray to God	Dievla Molina	
To ask	Kiajes	
To live	Sarjeven	
To walk	Ja mongari	
To see	Opredica	
To speak	Vokar	
It rains	Dalo brischen	Dalo breschin
It snows	Dalo ogive	Dalo ogive
It thunders	Derguner	
It hails	Delojigo	
Harken		Schiounta

HUNGARIAN GYPSEY SENTENCES.

English.	*Hungarian Gypsey.*	*English Gypsey.*
Whence do you come?	Kataraves	
What hast thou brought?	Suanes	

English.	*Hungarian Gypsey.*	*English Gypsey.*
From whom hast thou brought it?	Ko bichavel tut	
Give me a book	De man i ye kemvah	
Carry this letter	Le jole ada lile	
Write with this pen	Pissin ada le porel	
This pen is not good	Nani lacho ada por	
This work is good for nothing	Nani lacho adia munka	
My friend or my good man	Lacho manash e mengi	
Go you about with good people	Lach e manush enza ekar tut	
I have ever been your faithful servant, (literally) ever, your good man, I have been	Minden kola, lacho manush, sinyomoyne	
Mr Hofrichter, for a long time I have served you	Reih scherala, chela schluginel	
For many years also, thy father and thy mother, I served	Boot bersh, allella, tre dade, esh trade, schluginjum	
Go to church	Jah ande kahngeri	
Come with me	Pal almandi	
I love my wife and children	Kamamvi chavori temre romnia	
I am ill	Me nas falo siegno	Mai is na falo
Thou art ill	Tu nas falo siegnal	
He is ill	O nas falo siegno	
It is bad weather	Nani lacho dai	
It is good weather	Acano lacho diovla	
The sun is set	Acano neugodobo okam	
The sun is up	Ou prehustiello okam	Pre si okam
The sun shines	Acano okam schuscho	Kam pes
You will soon go away	Mindia acana ma ja	
What do I see	Sodiekab	Sodiekaba
With what art thou accustomed to amuse thyself?	Sohah tut mula tozenes?	

English.	*Hungarian Gypsey.*	*English Gypsey.*
With what	Sohah da	
Do you tell fables	Paramisi pehnes	
Now and then, fables I read for amusement	Acarcanna, paramisi, genolli, mounacha	
Now, and make quick		Cana and sego
Don't tell any stories		Ma pehn pokopen
I pray you, give me that which I have deserved	Manga tut, de mango le ada so schluginium	Mai mang tut del mando wai
Avoid, at all times, wicked men	Jah jakzidja erdiavo manush	Me prautawai waffro manush
I heave up this tobacco bag	Oprelola oya doahnzohka	
I put down this tobacco bag	Tela oya doahnzohka	
I take out this chair	Arele ya skami	
I draw in this chair	Andana ya skami	
I heave up this chair		Ashto leshto pre skamin
I push back the chair		Paulae skamin
I beg you, humbly, let me go home	Manga tut, schuchare, muk mon kere	Manga tut muk mon keres (schuchare is sixpence Eng. Gipsey)
My wife awaits me at home	Oje re kere me romni	Me romni a che kere mangi
May God bless you	Dievla aya linaph tut	Ache mai deviel

NUMERALS.

English.	*English Gypsey.*	*Gypsey from Grellman.*	*Hungarian Gypsey.*
One	Jeg	Ick, ek	Jeg
Two	Dui	Duj, doj	Diu
Three	Tri	Trin, tri	Tri
Four	Sta	Schtar, star	Stah
Five	Paunch	Pantsch, pansch	Paunch
Six		Tschowe, schow, sof	Schof
Seven		Efta	Epta
Eight		Ochto	Opto
Nine		Enja, eija	Ennia
Ten		Desch, des	Desh
Eleven			Descho, jeg
Twelve			Descho, diu

English.	*English Gypsey.*	*Gypsey from Grellman.*	*Hungarian Gypsey.*
Twenty	Bis	Besh, bish, bis	Bish
Twenty-one			Bishu-jeg
Twenty-two			Bishu-dui
Thirty		Trianda, tranda	Trianda
Thirty-one			Trianda-jeg
Forty		Starweldesch, saranda	Stahrwaldesh
Forty-one			Stahrwaldesta-jeg
Forty-two			Starwaldes-dui
Fifty		Pantschwerdesch panda pontsandis	Paunchwardesh
Fifty-one			Paunchwardesta-jeg
Sixty		Tschowerdesch, schoandis	Schawardesh
Sixty-one			Schwardeshta-jeg
Seventy		Estawerdesch	Eptawardesh
Seventy-one			Eptawardeshta-jeg
Eighty		Ochtowerdesch	Optawardesh
Eighty-one			Optawardeshta-jeg
Ninety		Eijawerdesch, enjandis	Enniawardesh
Hundred		Tschel, schel, sel	Schel
Two hundred		Dui schel, dei schel	Dui schel
A thousand		Deschwerschel ek ezeros	Ezerilomnoia
Two thousand			Dui ezeri somnoia
Ten thousand			Desh ezeri somnoia.

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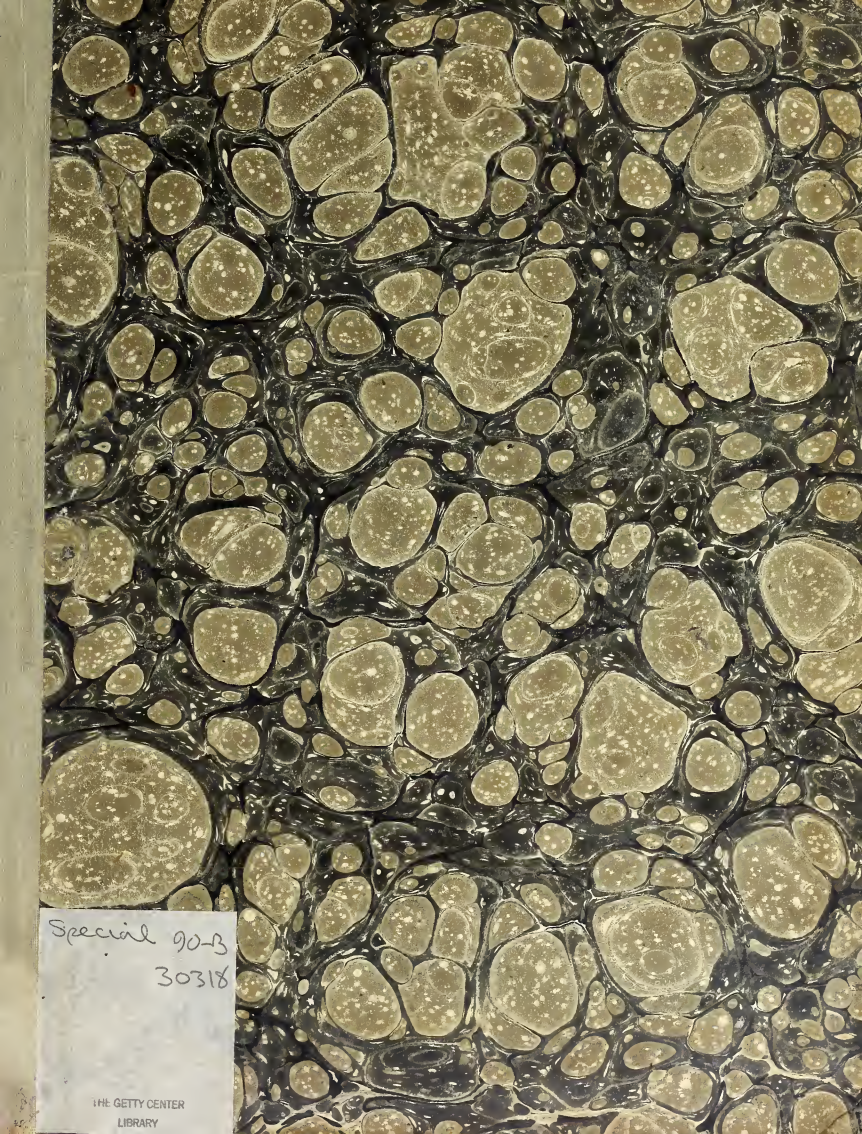
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